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GREENE'S FIRST LESSONS IN GRAMMAR.

FIRST LESSONS IN GRAMMAR,

BASED UPON THE

CONSTRUCTION AND ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES;

DESIGNED AS AN INTRODUCTION TO THE

"ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES."

BY SAMUEL S. GREENE, A. M.

PRINCIPAL OF THE PHILLIPS' GRAMMAR SCHOOL, BOSTON.

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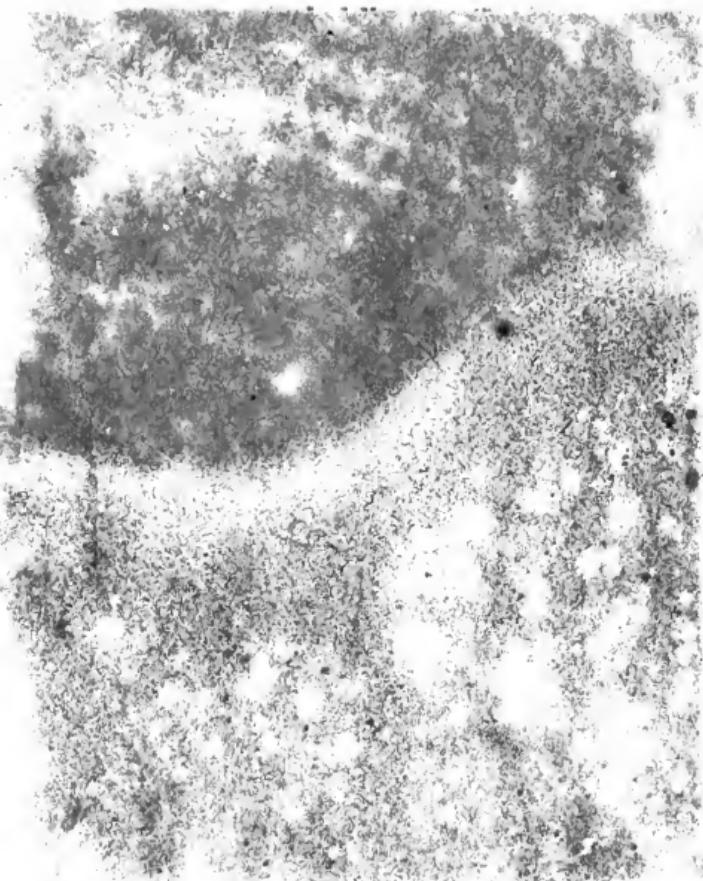
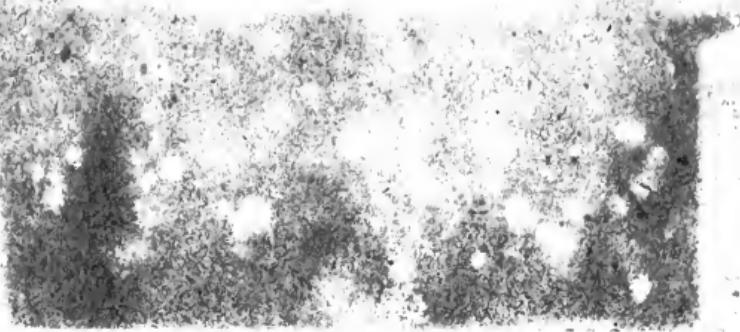
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OF THE NORMAL DEPARTMENT OF BROWN UNIVERSITY.



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New York, Geo. F. Cooledge & Brother;—Boston, Phillips, Sampson & Co., B. B. Mussey & Co.;—Baltimore, Cushing & Brother;—Charleston, S. C., McCarter & Allen;—Louisville, Ky., Morton & Griswold, Beckwith & Morton;—St. Louis, Fisher & Bennett, Wm. D. Skillman, Shultz & Eberlin;—Cincinnati, J. F. Deaver;—Nashville, Wm. T. Berry, Chas. W. Smith;—Memphis, C. Cleaves;—Lexington, C. S. Bodley & Co.;—Macon, Geo., J. M. Beardman.

Entered according to Act of Congress, in the year 1848.

BY SAMUEL S. GREENE.

In the Clerk's Office of the District Court of the District of Massachusetts.

24895

PRINTED BY SMITH & PETERS,
Franklin Buildings, Sixth Street below Arch, Philadelphia.

P R E F A C E.

THE following Lessons are designed as an introduction to a larger work, on the "Analysis of Sentences." The author has endeavored to simplify the system, without depriving it of any of its essential characteristics,—to reduce it, and yet retain its spirit. In thus adapting it to the capacity of beginners, he has avoided repeated and unnecessary explanation, tedious alike to the teacher and pupil, and, in its stead, has introduced copious exercises, intended to elucidate the parts to be learned. A single model accompanies the exercises, wherever it is necessary, and to prevent confusion, all superfluous or unexplained elements are avoided; so that the learner has before him, at any stage of his progress, but a single unknown element. The advantage of thus bringing forward only *one thing at a time*, every experienced teacher will readily appreciate. With beginners, success in the use of these Lessons will depend, in no small degree, upon a faithful performance of the exercises. They are to grammar what problems or questions are to arithmetic; and, it is believed, that children perceive grammatical as well as arithmetical relations more easily from what

they have to *perform*, than from what they have to *commit to memory*.

In some of the exercises all the elements are given, to be pointed out and explained; in others, some are given and others required; in others, none are given and all are required; while in others still, certain elements are given in one form, to be changed to equivalent ones in another form.

The work is divided into two parts. Part I. is devoted to the *formation of words*; and contains the principles of orthography and etymology. Part II. is occupied with the *formation of sentences*, and contains Rules for construction, and Models for analyzing and parsing, sufficient to guide the learner in all ordinary cases. It is to this part particularly that the author would invite attention. The peculiar feature of the work consists in unfolding the principles of grammar in connection with the construction and analysis of sentences. The sentence is brought forward, at first, in its simplest state. The learner is next made to witness its growth by the addition of words, phrases, and clauses. It is treated of throughout as consisting of *elements* both essential and subordinate. The elements are first introduced in the simplest form of *single words*. They next appear as they exist in the more expanded state of *phrases*; and farther on, in the still more expanded state of *clauses*. So that the pupil, who in the first place saw the *noun*, the *adjective*, and the *adverb*, occupying important positions in the sentence, next sees these same parts of speech, having grown up into

phrases or *clauses*, still enter into the structure of the sentence in the same relations as before. Every sentence has a *meaning* and a *form*,—a *soul* and a *body*; the form may change, while the meaning may remain unaltered; hence, in studying a sentence, both the *thought* and *mode* of expression should be examined. The form of a sentence changes when its *elements* change. Thus, in the sentence, "An *industrious* man will gain a competence," *industrious* designates the man who will gain a competence. But what *industrious* does in this sentence, *of industry*, or *who is industrious*, does in the following sentences: "A man *of industry* will gain a competence;" "A man *who is industrious*, will gain a competence." And yet there is no difference in the meaning of these three sentences. The facilities which are thus afforded for an interchange of equivalent *words*, *phrases*, or *clauses*, it is believed, have been too much overlooked in treatises on the English language. As soon, then, as the pupil becomes familiar with the distinctive features of these three classes of the elements, he should have frequent exercises on *equivalents*.

To these peculiarities the author would direct particular attention. Experience has fully proved, that grammar taught in this manner becomes a thought-stirring, a profitable, and a deeply interesting study. Those who seek for a more extended treatise on the analysis of the language, are referred to the author's larger work.

SAMUEL S. GREENE.

BOSTON, JULY, 1848.

SUGGESTIONS TO TEACHERS.

As the work is, in many material respects, different from the common treatises on Grammar, the author may be pardoned for making a few suggestions in regard to the manner of using it.

1. Let the pupil learn the first ten Lessons in the order in which they are arranged, paying particular attention to the Exercises.

2. After having learned the parts of speech in Lesson X., he should commence Lesson XXV. p. 81, and associate the remaining Lessons of Part I. with the corresponding Lessons of Part II.

3. As the learner commences the construction of sentences, it is indispensable, if he is a beginner, and very young, that he should receive much *oral instruction* on the blackboard. Let the teacher propose subjects, for example, and require of the class appropriate predicates to be given orally by the pupils.

4. In order to ensure success, the habit of regarding a sentence as a *picture* of some scene, transaction, or event, must be early established. When the pupil says, "*The waves dash*," he should be taught to form in his mind a picture of *waves* in motion. In other words, he should be taught to bring the whole scene to his mind as if it were a reality. In this way, only, the full force of the terms *modify*, *limit*, and *restrict*, can be understood.

5. In adding words to the subject and predicate, great care should be taken to explain their *modifying effects*; show in what way the added *word*, *phrase*, or *clause*, modifies the picture which the learner is forming in his mind. See introduction, p. 9.

6. As soon as the learner has mastered the classified examples in the Exercises, he should commence analyzing promiscuous examples in his reading lessons. Let him be careful to note the distinction between *simple*, *complex*, and *compound* elements.

7. To test the progress of a class, it is a good exercise for the teacher to describe the elements of a sentence, requiring the class to recollect the description. Then let the teacher give the page of the class book from which it was selected, leaving the class to hunt it out from their recollection of its elements. Another valuable exercise consists in giving, as above, the description of a sentence which is to be written on the slate, by each of the class.

8. The pupil is now supposed to have mastered the *forms* or the *materials* of which a sentence is made. Let him next *re-arrange* or *reconstruct* these materials so as to express his thoughts in the most agreeable and forcible manner.

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INTRODUCTION.

To tell others what we think, what we feel, or what we desire, we have only to speak or write a certain collection of words.

Examples.

“The rose is a beautiful flower.”

“The good child loves its parents.”

“Sarah wishes to learn music.”

But it must not be understood that every collection of words will express our thoughts, feelings, or desires.

Thus, if we should use the words,—

“Being a beautiful flower,”

“The good child loving its parents,”

“Sarah wishing to learn music,”—we should feel that something more was needed to make a statement.

Although nothing is stated in either of the last examples, containing from four to six words each, yet

we can make a statement with only *two* words. Thus,

(1.) HORSES RAN.

But this assertion is very indefinite; it does not tell *how many* horses, *what kind* of horses,—nor *how* they ran, *where* they ran, *when* they ran, or *why* they ran.

Let us observe how other words may be added to these two, to answer such inquiries. Thus, How many horses ran?

(2.) *Two* HORSES RAN.

In number (1.) the assertion would be true of any number of horses, but in (2.) it is confined to two horses. What kind of horses were they?

(3.) *Two white* HORSES RAN.

We must now think of only *two* horses, and they must be *white*. In *what condition* were they?

(4.) *Two white* HORSES which were attached to a coach, RAN.

We have now excluded from the statement any number of horses above *two*, also, all horses except *white* ones, and no two white horses can be taken into the account unless they are attached to a coach. *How* did these *two, white, harnessed* horses run?

(5.) *Two white* HORSES which were attached to a coach, RAN *furiously*.

This addition defines exactly the manner of running. *Where* did they run?

(6.) *Two white* HORSES which were attached to a coach, RAN *furiously through the streets of Boston*.

This group of words lays the scene of the event in Boston. Still nothing shows the *time* of the event.

(7.) Two white HORSES which were attached to a coach, RAN furiously through the streets of Boston, *one morning in June.*

Let us now add something to show the *cause* of their running.

(8.) Two white HORSES which were attached to a coach, RAN furiously through the streets of Boston, one morning in June, *because they were frightened by the crash of some falling timbers.*

Thus, by seven successive additions, each of which has given a peculiar shading to the picture, we have a complete statement of an event.

The most remarkable feature in this collection is, that the two words, printed in capitals, which appeared alone at the beginning, are the essential parts on which all the other words depend. If either should be removed, nothing would be asserted.

Each of the above eight examples is called a *sentence*, because it expresses a thought. The first contains only the two essential parts, and is vague and incomplete; while the last contains not only these parts but all the additions made to them, and is definite and complete.

It will be seen that some of the additions are *single words*, as in examples (2.), (3.), and (5.); others are *groups of words*, as in examples (4.), (6.), (7.), and (8.). Hence, the parts of a sentence may be either *words or groups of words.*

Every sentence in the language is formed in a manner similar to the above. It must consist of the two essential parts only, like (1.),—or it must contain those two parts with additions, like (2.), (3.), (4.), &c. But, before the learner can thoroughly understand how to construct a sentence, he must know something of the formation of words.

It is the office of Grammar to teach how to form *words* and entire *sentences* correctly.

Since words include the letters and syllables which compose them, and sentences, the words and groups of words which compose them, grammar may be conveniently divided into two parts,—*the formation of words* and *the formation of sentences*.

How may we tell others what we think, feel, or desire? Does every collection of words express a thought, feeling, or desire? What is the least number of words that can be used to make a statement? Why is the statement "Horses ran" indefinite? What does the word *two* added to *horses* show? How many horses might be included if *two* were not added? What does the word *white* added to *horses* show? What kinds of horses does it exclude? (Ans. *Black, gray, red, &c. horses.*) What does the group of words "*which were attached to a coach*" show? What two white horses might it exclude? What does the word *furiously* added to *ran*, show? What other modes of running might there be? What does the *group* "*through the streets of Boston,*" show? What does the *group*, "*one morning in June,*" show? What shows *why* the horses ran? What is each of the examples called? What is the office of Grammar? Into how many parts is Grammar divided?

PART I.

FORMATION OF WORDS.

Part I. embraces *orthography* and *etymology*. The former treats of letters and their various combinations; the latter of the classification and various modifications of words.

LESSON I.

ELEMENTARY SOUNDS.

An *elementary* sound is the simplest sound of the language; as *a, e, b, k*. (See Note, next page.)

The English language contains about forty elementary sounds.

These sounds are divided into three classes,—*vocals, subvocals, and aspirates*.

The *vocals* consist of pure tone only; as, *a, e, i, o, u*.

The *subvocals* consist of tone united with breath; as, *b, d, l, m, n, r*.

The *aspirates* consist of pure breath only; as, *p, t, k, f*.

EXERCISE.*

The following words contain the different elementary sounds in the language. Utter first the word, and then the element printed in Italics.

VOCALS. *N-a-me, f-a-r, b-a-ll, a-t; m-e, m-e-t; f-i-ne, p-i-n; s-o-ld, m-o-ve, n-o-t; m-u-te, p-u-ll, c-u-p; f-o-u-nd.*

SUBVOCALS. *B-at, d-og, g-o, j-oy, l-life, m-an, n-o, so-ng, ba-r, th-ose, v-oice, w-ise, y-es, z-one, a-z-ure.*

ASPIRATES. *F-aith, h-at, ar-k, p-ine, s-un, t-ake, th-inK, sh-one, ch-urch, wh-en.*

Tell by the sound which letters in the following promiscuous examples are VOCALS, which are SUBVOCALS, and which are ASPIRATES,—

And, great, made, fame, sad, mete, gave, life, voice, six, zebra, full, sup, dine, bid, bag, kite, pare, when, this, shall, ocean, king, feel, drive, make, link.

* These sounds can only be represented by the living voice. Repeated illustrations should, therefore, be given by the teacher, until the pupil can utter distinctly every element in the language.

A sure method of teaching a child the power of a letter is, to give him a word, as *bat*, and require him to pronounce it. Next let him pronounce as before, omitting the *t*, thus *ba*. Then omit the *a* and what remains will be the power of *b*. In like manner find the sound of *a* and *t*.

What is an elementary sound? How many elementary sounds does the English language contain? How are they divided? What is a vocal? A subvocal? An aspirate?

LESSON II.

LETTERS.

A letter is a *character* used to represent an elementary sound.

The English Alphabet contains twenty-six letters,—A, a; B, b; C, c; D, d; E, e; F, f; G, g; H, h; I, i; J, j; K, k; L, l; M, m; N, n; O, o; P, p; Q, q; R, r; S, s; T, t; U, u; V, v; W, w; X, x; Y, y; Z, z.

It will be seen (Lesson I.) that there are more elementary sounds than letters. Hence some letters must represent more than one sound each.

Those letters which represent vowels are called *vowels*. They are *a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, *u*, and sometimes *w* and *y*.

W and *Y* are consonants when they precede a vowel in the same syllable; as, *wine*, *twine*, *yes*, *yet*. In all other situations they are vowels.

Those letters which represent subvocals and aspirates are called *consonants*.

The consonants are *b*, *d*, *g*, *l*, *m*, *n*, *r*, *v*, *z*, (subvocals,) and *f*, *h*, *k*, *c*, *q*, *p*, *t*, *s*, (aspirates;) *x* is a subvocal when it is equivalent to *gs*, an aspirate, when it is equivalent to *ks*.

Many letters have two or more distinct sounds; as, *a* in *name*, *far*, *fare*, *war*, *what*, *at*.

The same sound is often represented by different letters; as, *c* in *suffice*, *z* in *amaze*, *s* in *was*.

Many of the letters in some uses, have no sound ; they are then called *silent* ; as, *gh* in *night*, *a* in *read*.

EXERCISE.

Tell which letters are vowels and which are consonants in the following words, —

Name, war, come, peace, tree, fish, good, live, old, sad, young, wine, said, yet, win, new, gay, day.

Tell which of the following letters represent vowels, which subvowels, and which aspirates, —

a, f, g, m, c, k, d, p, o, w, s, h, y, t, r, v, x, l, e, j.

Give the sounds of a in — name, war, bat, cabbage, fare, all, what ; of e in — mete, met, they, there, her ; of i in — pine, pin, sir ; of u in — mute, put, but, fur ; of c in — mice, sacrifice, cat ; of f in — fare, of ; of g in — give, go, gem, George ; of r in — read, rude, bar, far ; of s in — sit, sin, was, does, measure, pleasure ; of x in — wax, example.

Tell the different letters which represent the same sound in fare, there ; her, sir, fur, liar, doctor, zephyr ; was, maze ; ice, sin ; feign, lain, mane.

Tell what letters are silent in light, true, though, eight, great, know, mean, dear, lieu, sail.

Analyze the following words by giving, in order, the elementary sounds (not the names of the letters). Thus, b-a-t, bat. cat, sad, mete, laugh, bought, fought, believe, phthisic.

What is a letter ? How many letters are there ? What are vowels ? Name them. How many consonants are there ? Name them. How many sounds have many letters ? How is the same sound often represented ? What are silent letters ?

LESSON III.

UNITED LETTERS.

A *diphthong* is the union of two vowels in one syllable ; as, *ou* in *sound*, *oi* in *voice*.

A *proper diphthong* is one in which both vowels are sounded ; as, *ou* in *thou*.

An *improper diphthong* is one in which one of the vowels is silent ; as, the *a* in *heat*.

A *tripthong* is the union of three vowels in one syllable ; as, *eau* in *beauty*.

A *proper triphthong* is one in which the three vowels are sounded ; as, *uoy* in *bouy*.

An *improper triphthong* is one in which one or two of the vowels are silent ; as, *ea* in *beauty* ; *ie* in *adieu*.

Two consonants often unite to represent one or more elementary sounds ; as, *th* in *think*, *this* ; *ch* in *church*, *chaise*, *tetrarch* ; *ph* in *phase*, *Stephen* ; *wh* in *when* ; *sh* in *shall*. X is equivalent to *gs* or *ks* ; as, in *exist*, *wax*.

Many of the vowels and consonants are doubled ; as in *poor*, *peer*, *Isaac*, *egg*, *buzz*, *staff*, *ebb*.

The following combinations of a consonant and a vowel, *ti*, *si*, *ci*, *ce*, as, in *martial*, *mission*, *official*, *ocean*, are equivalent to *sh*.

Most of the combinations represent but a single elementary sound.

EXERCISE.

Point out the combinations in the following words; tell whether the diphthongs and triphthongs are proper or improper.

Fear, pear, voice, sound, pierce, receive, Europe, *purple*, view, adieu, beauty, think, though, shine, when, whip, chip phrase, chaise, architect, motion, partial, option, session.

What is a diphthong? What is a proper diphthong? What is an improper diphthong? What is a triphthong? What is a proper triphthong? What is an improper triphthong? Do two consonants ever unite? Give examples. What consonants and vowels are equivalent to *sh*?

LESSON IV.

SYLLABLES.

A *syllable* is a letter or combination of letters uttered with one impulse of the voice; as, *mat*, *matter*, *ma-ter-i-al*.

The *essential* part of a syllable is a vowel.

NOTE. By *vowel* here is meant a vowel sound, whether represented by a single letter, a diphthong, or a triphthong.

A syllable may consist,

- (1.) Of a vowel; as, *a*-*cre*, *ei*-*ther*.
- (2.) Of a vowel with one or more consonants prefixed; as, *ba*-*sis*, *bri*-*er*, *three*, *phthi*-*sis*.
- (3.) Of a vowel with one or more consonants affixed; as, *in*, *elf*, *inter-est*s, *earth*s.

(4.) Of a vowel with one or more consonants both prefixed and affixed ; as, *n-oo-n*, *tr-u-th*, *thr-u-sts*.

NOTE. In the preceding lessons the pupil has been occupied with elementary *sounds* and the *characters* which represent them. In this lesson he is taught the modes of combining them into syllables. It is often necessary to separate a syllable into its elements.

The process of combining elementary parts is called *synthesis*; that of separating a combination into its elements is called *analysis*.

NOTE. In analyzing a syllable, let the learner tell, (1.) the *essential* part, that is, the vowel or diphthong; (2.) the consonant or consonants which are prefixed to it; (3.) the consonant or consonants which are affixed to it.

Models for analyzing Syllables.

An... is a syllable consisting of two elements :

A.... is the essential element,—it is a vowel. (Give its sound.)

n.... is a consonant and represents a subvocal ; it is affixed to *a*. (Give its sound.)

Break is a syllable consisting of three parts :

ea.... is the essential part,—it is a diphthong (why ?), improper (why ?); *e* is silent,—*a* only is sounded. (Give its sound.)

Br.... is a union of two consonants, both representing subvocals, *b* and *r* which are prefixed to *ea*. (Give their sounds separately, then together.)

k.... is a consonant representing an aspirate and is affixed to *ea*. (Give its sound.)

EXERCISE.

Analyze the following syllables, and describe each element.—Kite, dog, numb, boat, friend, truth, day, wax, bat, view, sound, aid, meat, suit, rude, the, think, sit, leave, three, bursts, threats.

Form syllables by prefixing ONE consonant to a, ay, ey, ou, ieu, y; TWO consonants to e, oo, oe, i, ou, oi; THREE consonants to ee, ea, ay, i, ey;—by affixing ONE, TWO, or THREE consonants to any five of the above vowels or diphthongs. Form ten syllables in which one, two, or more consonants shall be prefixed and affixed.

What is a syllable? What is the essential part of a syllable? Of what may a syllable consist? What is the process of combining elementary parts called? What is analysis?

LESSON V.

WORDS USED TO REPRESENT SOUNDS.

NOTE. Written words are used to represent both *sounds* and *ideas*. As the representatives of sounds, they are classified according to the number of syllables they contain.

A word may consist of one syllable alone, or of two or more syllables united.

A word of one syllable is called a *monosyllable*; as, *boy*, *pen*, *tree*.

A word of two syllables is called a *dissyllable*; as, *na-ture*, *faith-ful*.

A word of three syllables is called a *trisyllable*; as *nat-ur-al*, *faith-ful-ness*.

A word of four or more syllables is called a poly-syllable; as, *un-nat-u-ral*, *un-faith-ful-ness*.

Accent is a stress of the voice placed upon a particular syllable, to distinguish it from others.

Every word of more than one syllable has one of its syllables accented.

The accented syllable may be either the first, last, or a middle syllable; as, *du'ty*, *be-long'*, *pre-par'ing*.

Some words have a primary and secondary accent; as, *in''-de-fat'igable*, *in''-comprehen'sible*.

NOTE. In separating a word into its syllables, we should divide it as it is pronounced. Thus, some pronounce *pat'ri-ot*, others *pa'tri-ot*, and the *t* must be joined to the first or second syllable accordingly. The learner should tell how many syllables a word contains, calling it a *monosyllable*, *dissyllable*, &c., then point out the accented syllable, and analyze each according to the preceding models, (page 19.)

EXERCISE.

Analyze and describe the following words:—

Beat, said, tree; friendship, social, himself, stately; complaining, interpret, indolence; incessantly, condemnation, interdicting, domesticate; consanguinity, confederation, impenetrable; mispronunciation, incomprehensible, indefatigable; impenetrability; incomprehensibility.

Correct the accent in the following words:—

Local', indo'lence, memo'rable, ig'noble, frequently, lament'able, actu'al, indispu'table, immuta'ble, retro'spect, completion, late'ral. *Change the accent in the following words to the second syllable and give their meaning,—* August, con'jure, des'ert, en'trance, min'ute, pres'ent, proj'ect, in'valid.

Write the following words upon the slate, and divide them into syllables, marking the accented syllable. —

Conscience, detecting, inability, indubitable, commotion, laborious, relate, detestation, infesting, exemplary.

MODEL. Con'-science.

*Miscellaneous Questions for Review.**

How many letters should we have, if each element were represented by a single letter? In what respect does a *vocal* differ from a *subvocal*? A *subvocal* from an *aspirate*? What is the difference between a letter and an elementary sound? What is the difference between the *name* of a letter and its sound? In what respect do the names of most of the letters resemble their sounds? Are *th*, *chr*, *phl*, *phth*, *sts*, syllables? Why? How many elementary sounds in *though*, *neigh*? In the first syllables of [y] *unity*, *union*? How are syllables formed? What should be your guide in dividing words into syllables? Have *ate*, *brought*, *fine*, any accent? Why? How would you mark *august* so as to make it mean *grand*? Utter, in succession, the elementary sounds of *believing*, *composing*, *delinquent*.

* These Questions are intended as a general exercise on the preceding lessons. They cannot always be answered directly from any one paragraph in the text, but are designed to test the pupil's knowledge of the subject. The teacher should multiply such questions according to the wants of his class.

—

DERIVATION AND COMPOSITION OF WORDS.

LESSON VI.

WORDS CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO THEIR FORMATION.

NOTE. The English language contains about eighty thousand words. Considered as the representatives of *ideas*, these words are classified according to their *formation*, or according to their *meaning* and *use*. Classified according to their formation, all words are either *primitive*, *derivative*, or *compound*.

A word in no way derived from another is a *radical* or *primitive* word ; as, *form*, *harm*.

A word formed by joining to a primitive some letter or syllable, to modify its meaning, is a *derivative* word ; as, *re-form*, *harm-less*.

A word formed by uniting two or more entire words, is a *compound* word ; as, *inkstand*, *school-house*.

The parts of those compounds which have been long in use are generally united closely ; as, *nevertheless*, *sunrise* ; in others, the hyphen (-) is used to separate the parts ; as, *labor-saving*.

EXERCISE.

Tell which of the following words are PRIMITIVE, which DERIVATIVE, and which COMPOUND :—

Bright, fair, told, meek, some, playful, joyless, income, bookstore, playmate, cloud-capped, ink, housetop, fearful, reform, dismember, dreary.

Form derivative words from the following primitives, and draw a line under the added syllable or letter :— hope, fear, harm, love, care, know, peer, ape, weed, cloud, form, grade, place, joy, truth, poet, fade, weep, laugh.

MODEL. Hopeless.

Form compound words, by joining some appropriate word to each of the following :— Air, chest, alms, bank, birth, bill, fire, eye, weed, toll, wood, foot, work, play, land, busy, tree, breeze.

MODEL. Air-pump.

What is a radical or primitive word ? What is a derivative word ? What is a compound word ?

LESSON VII.

PREFIXES.

That part of a derivative word which is placed before the radical is called a *prefix*; as, *re*-turn, *pre*-pay.

In applying prefixes to radicals, certain changes often take place, to render the sound more agreeable. These changes are made according to the following rules:—

RULE I. DROPPING THE FINAL LETTER. — The final letter of a prefix is sometimes omitted; as, *co*-existent for *con*-existent, *ant*-arctic for *anti*-arctic.

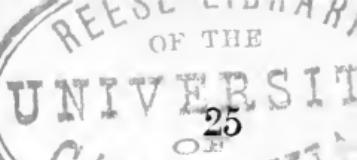
RULE II. CHANGING THE FINAL LETTER. — The final letter of a prefix is often changed to one which will harmonize, in sound, with the initial letter of the radical; as, *im*-pious for *in*-pious.

The final letter of the prefix generally becomes the same as the first letter of the radical; as, *il*-limitable.

The principal prefixes which undergo this change are *ad*, (ac, af, ag, al, an, ap, ar, as, at;) *con*, (cog, com, col, cor;) *en*, (em;) *e*, (ex ec, ef;) *dis*, (dif, di;) *ob*, (of, oc, op;) *sub*, (suc, suf, sug, sup, sur;) *syn*, (sym, syl).

EXERCISE ON RULES I. II.

Write derivatives by prefixing anti to arctic; con to temporary, laborer, extensive, location, mend, mix, mingle, nomen, relative; ad to scribe, credit, firm, fluent, legation, rest, point, ply, tempt; in to religious, legal, legible, liberal, noble, perfect, penitent, potent, prove; en to body, broil; ob to position, press, cur, fend; sub to session, fix, fumigation, fusion, gest, press, render; syn to pathetic, logistic; ex to centric, flux; dis to fuse, late.



Correct the following examples by Rule II. Imply, sub-render, inmediate, sympathetic, adlegation, adfect, adcredit, obpose, obportunity, exfect, disfer, inluminate, conlect, commend, employ, subgest.

NOTE. The most common prefixes are contained in the following list. They are chiefly prepositions of Saxon, Latin, or Greek origin. The roots to which they are prefixed are not always used as distinct words in the English language. The meaning of such radicals may generally be determined by applying different prefixes. Thus, in *im-pel*, *ex-pel*, *dis-pel*, *com-pel*, *pro-pel*, one would readily see, by comparison, that *pel* means *to drive*.

PREFIXES OF SAXON ORIGIN.

<i>Prefix.</i>	<i>Signification.</i>	<i>Example.</i>
A.	<i>on or in.</i>	<i>Aboard, ashore.</i>
Be.	<i>near, on, for, over.</i>	<i>Beside, bestir.</i>
For.	<i>against, from.</i>	<i>Forbid, forsake.</i>
Fore.	<i>before.</i>	<i>Foresee, foretell.</i>
Mis.	<i>wrong, error.</i>	<i>Mistake, misspell.</i>
Over.	<i>above, beyond.</i>	<i>Overdo, overload.</i>
Out.	<i>beyond, more.</i>	<i>Outrun, outdo.</i>
Un.	<i>not, negation.</i>	<i>Unwise, unkind.</i>
Under.	<i>beneath, inferior.</i>	<i>Understand, undergo.</i>
Up.	<i>above, subversion.</i>	<i>Uplift, upset.</i>
With.	<i>against, from.</i>	<i>Withstand, withdraw.</i>

PREFIXES OF LATIN ORIGIN.

A, ab, abs.	<i>from, away.</i>	<i>Abstract, avert.</i>
Ad.*	<i>to, at, towards.</i>	<i>Adjoin, approach (move).</i>
Ante.	<i>before.</i>	<i>Antecedent (going).</i>
Bene.	<i>good, well.</i>	<i>Benevolent, beneficent (doing).</i>
Bis or bi.	<i>twice, two.</i>	<i>Bisect (cut), biped (feet).</i>
Circum.	<i>around, about.</i>	<i>Circumnavigate (sail).</i>
Cis.	<i>on this side.</i>	<i>Cisalpine.</i>
Con.*	<i>together, with.</i>	<i>Collect, confine.</i>
Contra.	<i>against.</i>	<i>Contradict (speak).</i>

* Those prefixes marked with the star have other forms. See Lesson VII.

<i>Prefix</i>	<i>Signification.</i>	<i>Example.</i>
De.	<i>from, down.</i>	<i>Dethrone, detract (draw).</i>
Dis.*	<i>asunder.</i>	<i>Distract, divert (turn.)</i>
E (ex).*	<i>out of, from.</i>	<i>Eject (drive), expel (cast).</i>
Extra.	<i>beyond.</i>	<i>Extraordinary.</i>
In.*	<i>into, in; not.†</i>	<i>Inform, include; inactive.</i>
Inter.	<i>between.</i>	<i>Interpose (place).</i>
Intro.	<i>in, within.</i>	<i>Introduce (lead).</i>
Non.	<i>not.</i>	<i>Nonconformist.</i>
Ob.*	<i>against.</i>	<i>Obstruct (build).</i>
Per.	<i>through, by.</i>	<i>Perfect (made).</i>
Post.	<i>after.</i>	<i>Postpone (place).</i>
Pre.	<i>before.</i>	<i>Precede (go).</i>
Pro.	<i>for, forth, forwards.</i>	<i>Pronoun, progress (go).</i>
Preter.	<i>past, beyond.</i>	<i>Preternatural.</i>
Re.	<i>back, again.</i>	<i>Recall.</i>
Retro.	<i>backwards.</i>	<i>Retrograde (move).</i>
Se.	<i>apart, separation.</i>	<i>Secede (go).</i>
Sine.	<i>without.</i>	<i>Sinecure (care).</i>
Sub.*	<i>under.</i>	<i>Subscribe (write).</i>
Super.	<i>over, beyond.</i>	<i>Superscribe (write).</i>
Trans.	<i>over, change.</i>	<i>Transplant.</i>
Uni.	<i>one.</i>	<i>Uniform.</i>

GREEK PREFIXES.

A or an.	<i>without.</i>	<i>Anonymous (name).</i>
Amphi.	<i>both, double.</i>	<i>Amphibious (living).</i>
Ana.	<i>through, up.</i>	<i>Anatomy (cut).</i>
Anti.	<i>against.</i>	<i>Antichristian.</i>
Apo or Aph.	<i>from.</i>	<i>Apogee (earth).</i>
Dia.	<i>through.</i>	<i>Diameter (measure).</i>
Epi.	<i>upon.</i>	<i>Epitaph (tomb).</i>
Hyper.	<i>over, above.</i>	<i>Hypercritical.</i>
Hypo.	<i>under.</i>	<i>Hypocrite.</i>
Meta or Meth.	<i>change, beyond.</i>	<i>Metamorphose (form).</i>
Para.	<i>from, against.</i>	<i>Paradox (opinion).</i>
Peri.	<i>around.</i>	<i>Perimeter (measure).</i>
Syn.*	<i>with.</i>	<i>Sympathy (feeling).</i>

† Before a verb, *in* signifies *into, in*, and sometimes *against*; before an adjective it has a negative meaning.

NOTE. Many of the roots to which the prefixes are added are not distinct words in the English language. In the following exercises, as in the above examples, such roots will be defined in a parenthesis. The pupil should analyze derivative words according to the following

MODEL FOR ANALYSIS.

Impenitent is a derivative word, (why?)

Penitent is the radical part, and signifies *repenting*.

In is the prefix (*in*, Rule II.) and signifies *not*.

Hence, **IMPENITENT**, *not repenting*.

EXERCISE.

Analyze the following derivative words according to the model:—

Aboard, aground, accredit, accustom, aggrieve, antepast (taste), forgive, bestir, foreknow, misplace, overtake, abstract (draw), outrun, uncommon, adjoin, understand, uphold, withdraw, benevolent (wishing), circumscribe (write or mark), cisalpine, bivalve, complete (fill), dispel (drive), imprint, interdict (speak), oppose (place), pervade (pass), premeditate, preoccupy, post mortem (death), progress (go), refer (carry), reanimate, subterraneous (earth), support (bear), superstructure, transpose (place), acephalous (head), antipathy (feeling), apostatize (standing), aphæresis (taking), diagonal (angle), epitaph (tomb), paraphrase (speaking), periphrasis.

Study the list of prefixes, and then add to the following roots all that may be used appropriately. Define each word.

Form, spire* (to breathe), rect (to make straight), part, sign, sume (to take), scribe (to write), tract (to draw), duce (to lead), sist (to stand), lude (to play), cede (to go, to yield), clude (to shut or close), port (to carry), act, claim

* To many of the radicals *two* prefixes are added, each having its peculiar force; as, *re-con-struct*, *re-ad-mit*. The pupil should explain each

(to call or speak), natural, sure, prove, join, struct (to build), course, cur (to run), vention (the act of coming or going), graph (marked or written), fuse, press, pel (to urge or drive), volve (to roll or turn), gress (to step, pass), fix, flux, fer or late (to bear, carry), mise or mit (to send), tain (to hold), dict (to speak), pose (to place), vers or vert (to turn).

MODEL. *Conform,* to form *together*, i. e., to assimilate, to yield to custom.

Reform, to form *again*, i. e., to renew.

Inform, to form *in* [the mind], i. e., to tell. [figure]

Deform, to form *from* [the proper shape], i. e., to dis-

Perform, to form *through*, i. e., thoroughly, to complete.

Transform, to form *over*, i. e., to change the form.

NOTE. By exercises like the above, multiplied at the discretion of the teacher, the pupil may soon perceive the force of all the prefixes. It is a good exercise to take the dictionary and require the pupil to explain all the derivatives from any given root.

What is a prefix? Give the Rules for the changes in some of the prefixes. What is the meaning of each of the prefixes? Give an example.

LESSON VIII

SUFFIXES.

That part of a derivative word, which is placed *after* the radical, is called a *suffix*; as, *faithful*, *end-less*.

NOTE. In applying suffixes, the final letter or letters of the radical are often changed. Such changes are made according to the following rules:—

RULE I. DOUBLING THE FINAL LETTER. — On receiving a suffix beginning with a vowel, the final consonant of a monosyllable, or of any word accented on the last syllable, is doubled,—if the radical ends with a single consonant, preceded by a single vowel; otherwise it remains single; as, *dig-ing*, *dig-ging*; *defer-ing*, *deferr-ing*. Not so, *re-pair-ing*, *defend-ing*, *differ-ing*.

Many words ending in *l*; as, *travel*, *libel*, *cancel*, *cavil*, *chisel*, *counsel*, *duel*, *equal*, *grovel*, *model*, *pencil*, *revel*, *rival*, *trammel*, *tunnel*, &c., double the *l* on receiving a suffix beginning with a vowel, though not accented on the last syllable. To these add *worship*, *bias*, *kidnap*; *worship-ping*, *bias-sing*, *kidnap-ping*.

RULE II. DROPPING THE FINAL LETTER. — On receiving a suffix, beginning with a vowel, the final vowel of the radical is dropped in most words ending in *e*, silent; as, *love-ing*, *loving*;—also, in some words ending in *y* and *i*; as, *felicity-ate*, *felicitate*; *deiism*, *deism*.

Contrary to the general rule, the final *e* is retained, when preceded by *c* or *g*; as, *peace-able*, *peaceable*; *change-able*, *changeable*.

The final letters *le*, when followed by *ly*, are dropped; as, *noble ly*, *nobly*. So also *t* or *te* before *ce* or *cy*; as, *vagrant-cy*, *vagrancy*; *prelate-cy*, *prelacy*.

Words ending in *ll* drop one *l* on taking an additional syllable, beginning with a consonant; as, *skill-ful*, *skilful*.

RULE III. CHANGING THE FINAL LETTER. — The final *y* of a radical word is generally changed to *i*, if preceded by a consonant, otherwise it usually remains unchanged; as, *happy-est*, *happiest*; *duty-es*, *duties*; *day-s*, *days*.

The *f*, in words ending in *f* or *fe*, is generally changed to *v*, when the suffix begins with a vowel; as, *life*, *lives*.

To prevent doubling *i*, the *y* is not changed when the suffix begins with *i*; as, *marry-ing*, marrying. For the same reason, the *e* being dropped by Rule II. in *die*, *lie*, *tie*, *vie*, the *i* is changed to *y*; as, *dying*, *lying*, *tying*, *vying*.

EXERCISES ON THE RULES.

Add ING, ED, or ER, to beg, sit, dig, dim, bed, dog, let, bet, prefer, transfer, forget, dispel, propel, befit, control, travel, level, counsel; love, compile, receive, leave, grieve, confine, define. *Add ABLE to* peace, change, sale; — *ly to* able, disagreeable, conformable, idle, noble; — *FUL to* skill, will; — *ES, ED, or ING, to* duty, lily, glory, story, history, beauty, beautify, amplify, rectify.

Correct the following, and explain your corrections: — beding, beting, wifes, debared, abhorent, alkalioid, gloryous, citys, fancyful, tarriing, carriing, dutyful, bountyful, hand-someest, bloting, fameous, agreeabley, incompatabley.

What is a suffix? Give Rules I., II., and III.

LESSON IX.

LIST OF THE PRINCIPAL SUFFIXES.

The following list contains the principal suffixes. They signify,—

I. THE PERSON WHO, *the female who*.

Ant, ar, ard, ary, eer, er, ee, ent, ist, ite, ian, ive, or, ner, ster, yer, zen; ess, ress, ix, ine.

EXAMPLES. African, *one who* lives in Africa. Servant, *one who* serves. Beggar, *one who* begs. Adversary, *one who* opposes. So, dotard, charioteer, laborer, mortgagee, president, favorite, economist,

arithmetician, operative, actor, partner, teamster, lawyer, citizen; poetess, instructress, testatrix, heroine.

II. THE THING WHICH, *the act of, the quality of, or state of.*

Acy, age, al, ade, ancy, ance, ency, ence, ety, hood, ion, ism, ice, ment, mony, ness, ry, ship, ude, (tude,) th, ty, ure, dom, ric.

EXAMPLES. *Privacy, the state of being private. Justice that which is just. Meekness, the quality of being meek. So, bondage, refusal, cannonade, expectancy, repentance, penitence, emergency, variety, childhood, erection, despotism, commandment, acrimony, goodness, rivalry, scholarship, quietude, truth, novelty, pressure, christendom, bishopric.*

III. THE PROPERTY *pertaining to, belonging to, or abounding in.*

Ac, al, an (ian, ean), ar, ary, ate, ic (tic or atic), ile, ine, ory, ose, ous (ious, eous, uous), ful, ey, y.

EXAMPLES. *Elegiac, pertaining to an elegy. Mountainous, abounding in mountains. So, autumnal, antedeluvian, emblematic, lunatic, consular, discretionary, juvenile, adamantine, transitory, verbose, wondrous, affectionate, hopeful, sunny.*

IV. TO CAUSE, TO MAKE.

Ate (iate, uate), en, fy, ish, ize, ise.

EXAMPLES. *Alienate, to make an alien. So, justify, establish soften, civilize, criticise.*

V. DIMINUTION.

Cle, cule, kin, let, ling, ock.

EXAMPLES. *Corpuscle, a little body or particle. So, animalcule, lambkin, eaglet, duckling, hillock.*

VI. (*Miscellaneous.*)

Oid, like; as, spheroid—ive, tending to; as, delusive—ward, towards; as, eastward—less, without; as, sleepless

—ics, *science of*; as, mathematics —ish, *somewhat*; as, bluish —like, *resembling*; as, warlike —ly, *in — manner*, as, wisely —able (ible) *capable of*; as, credible.

NOTE. The following terminations are properly grammatical inflections, used to denote the accidents of the *noun, verb, adjective, or adverb*.

S or ES, *more than one*, (plural;) as, birds*; churches.

ED, . . . past time or the *passive state*; as, loved (did love, or was loved.)

ING, . . . continuing to do; as, loving.

ER, EST, more, most; as, warmer, warmest.

NOTE. The general significations of the various suffixes are given in the above list. The particular variations of these meanings, to suit given cases, will readily suggest themselves.

MODEL FOR ANALYSIS.

Quietude, . . . It is a derivative word, (why?)

Quiet, is the radical part and signifies *rest*.

Ude, is the suffix and signifies *state of*.

Hence, *QUIET-UDE, state of rest*.

NOTE. By combining this with the preceding model, the pupil can analyze all words having both a prefix and a suffix. All compounds may be analyzed according to the following

MODEL.

Sea-breeze . . . is a compound word, (why?) formed from

Sea, which means the *ocean*, and

breeze, which means a *gentle wind*.

Hence, *Sea-breeze, a gentle wind from the ocean*.

EXERCISE.

Study the list of suffixes and prefixes, and then analyze the following derivative words:—

Incomplete, famous, peerage, childhood, peaceable, ani-

* When s or es are added to the present tense of the verb, they denote the singular number.

malecule, pupilage, globule, hopeful, kingdom, friendship, expectation, indecisive, incompatible, incomprehensibility, righteous, signature, prepossession, dissimilarity, discovery, recoverable, reorganize, transparency, debasement, promotion, derangement, reinstate, predisposition, illumination, ignominiously, allegation, confederation, impenetrability, disqualification.

Analyze the following compound words : —

Seahorse, timepiece, cloudcapped, fireplace, inkstand, tree-top, woodhouse, schoolroom, mousetrap, whaleship, sunrise, drawbridge, newspaper, copy-book, breastplate, eyesight, airpump, cornstalk, woodpile.

Add as many prefixes and suffixes as you can to the following radicals, and count the number of words you form from each : —

Form, gress (go), press, grade, range, merge, number, face, brace, value, measure, like, state, cloud, fair, stable, equal, print, trust, burden, mix, mount, line, social, move, base, animate, judge, test, use, lay, figure, firm, vene (come), join, struct (build), charge, cede, serve, tend.

MODEL. FORM — forms, former, formed, forming, formation, formal, formally, formality, formalist, formalism, formative, reform, reforms, reformed, reforming, reformation, reformatory, reformative, reformer, inform, informs, informer, informed, informing, informal, informally, informality, informant, misinform, misinformed, perform, performs, performer, performed, performing, performance, performable, deform, deforms, deformed, deforming, deformity, transform, transforms, transforming, transformed, transformation, conform, conforms, conforming, conformed, conformer, conformable, conformably, conformation, conformist, conformity, nonconformist, nonconformity, unform, unformed, uniform, uniforms, uniformly, uniformity. 65 words.

NOTE. Care should be taken that no word be sanctioned which is not in good use. Analogy will lead the learner to form words which have not the sanction of usage.

How many classes of suffixes are given? What does each denote? Mention the principal suffixes under each.

PARTS OF SPEECH—INFLECTION.

LESSON X.

WORDS CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO THEIR MEANING AND USE.

NOTE. This classification cannot be fully understood till the pupil learns to combine words into sentences; and as it depends upon the *use* of words, the same word may belong to one class in one connection, and to another in another. Yet all words may be reduced to eight classes, called *parts of speech*.

A *noun* is the name of an object; as, *fruit, Henry, Boston*.

The noun (from the Lat. *nomen, a name*) embraces a large number of words. All words which are the names of *persons, animals, places, or things*, material or immaterial, are called nouns.

A *pronoun* is a word which takes the place of a noun; as, *I, he, you, who*.

This part of speech (derived from the Lat. *pronomen, for a name*) embraces but a small number of different words; yet any noun may be represented by a pronoun.

An *adjective* is a word used to limit or qualify the meaning of a noun or pronoun; as, *good, faithful, this, some*.

The adjective (from the Lat. *adjectus*, *added to*, i. e., to a noun) embraces a large class of words, which are added to nouns to express their qualities or define them; as, "Worthy citizens;" "this book." It will be seen that these three parts of speech are intimately connected; the first is the *name* of an object,—the second may take the place of the first,—the third expresses the properties of either. All words which are united to nouns answering such questions as *What?* *What kind?* *How many?* are adjectives.

A *verb* is a word which expresses *being, action, or state*; as, *be, read, sleep, is loved*.

Nothing can be affirmed without a verb. It is derived from the Lat. *verbum*, *the word*, i. e., the important word; it embraces a large class of words. The different *uses* of the verb, as well as those of the other parts of speech, will be explained in Part II.

An *adverb* is used to modify the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or another adverb; as, *quickly, first, far*.

The adverb (from the Lat. *adverbium*, *added to a verb*) embraces all those words which are added to verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs, to denote *time, place, and manner*.

A *preposition* is a word used to show the relation between a noun or pronoun and some preceding word; as, *upon, on, with*.

This part of speech embraces a small list of words, which are used to denote the relations of *place, time, cause, manner, property, quality, &c.* It is called a preposition (from the Lat. *prepositus*, *placed before*) from the circumstance of its being placed before the object with which it is always associated.

A *conjunction* is a word used to connect either words, phrases, or propositions; as, *and, but, or*.

The conjunction includes but a small class of words, which are used to join the parts of a sentence; it is derived from the Lat. *con junctus, joined*.

An *interjection* is a word used to express some emotion of the mind; as, *oh! alas!*

The term *interjection*, (from the Lat. *interjectus, thrown between,*) is applied to a few words that do not enter into the structure of a sentence; but may be thrown in at pleasure, to express our feelings.

NOTE. The exercises on the parts of speech are deferred till the learner shall commence the construction of sentences. The pupil should now commence Part II., page 81.

How many parts of speech are there? What is a noun? A pronoun? An adjective? A verb? An adverb? A preposition? A conjunction? An interjection?

LESSON XI.

NOUNS.

A noun is the *name* of an object.

NOTE. — The word *object*, as here used, embraces every species of existence, whether material or immaterial.

Nouns are divided into two classes, — *proper* and *common*.

A *proper* noun is the name of an individual object; as, *James, Erie*.

A *common* noun is a name which applies to each individual of a class of objects; as, *man, boy, house*.

Under the head of common nouns are commonly reckoned *collective, abstract, and verbal* nouns.

A *collective* noun is one which, in the singular, denotes more than one object as, *army, family, flock*.

An *abstract* noun is the name of a *property* considered apart from the object to which it belongs; as, *goodness, virtue, wisdom*.

A *verbal* noun is a *participle* used as a noun; as, "He was convicted of *stealing*."

The *infinitive* is a kind of verbal noun; as, "*To see* the sun is pleasant."

A phrase or entire proposition may be used as a noun; as, "*From Boston to Providence* is a pleasant route;" "*That you have wronged me*, doth appear in this."

NOTE. The noun is often called a *substantive*. All phrases or clauses, used as nouns, are called *substantive* phrases or clauses.

What is a noun? Into how many classes are nouns divided? What is a proper noun? What is a common noun? A collective noun? An abstract noun? A verbal noun?

LESSON XII.

PRONOUNS.

A pronoun is a word which takes the place of a noun.

NOTE. The pronoun is used to represent an object as having been previously mentioned, or as having some relation to the speaker.

Pronouns are divided into three classes,—*personal, relative, and interrogative*.

A *personal* pronoun is used both to represent a noun and to show whether it is of the *first, second, or third* person.

I (plural, *we*) is of the *first* person; *thou* (plural, *ye* or *you*) is of the *second* person; *he*,

she, and *it*, (plural, *they*,) are of the *third* person, masculine, feminine, and neuter, respectively.

When *self* (plural, *selves*) is added to the personal pronouns, they are called *compound personal pronouns*; as, *myself*, *thyself*, *himself*, *herself*, *itself*; *ourselves*, *yourselves*, *themselves*.

These seldom, if ever, are used as the subject; they may be in apposition with the subject.

It is often used in a vague sense, as the subject of verbs descriptive of the weather; as, "It rains;" "It thunders." It is used as an *expletive*, or when we wish to identify a person; as, "It is pleasant to see the sun;" "It is Moses."

A *relative* pronoun is used to represent a preceding noun or pronoun, called the *antecedent*; as, "Those *who* wish for favors, must assist others."

The simple relative pronouns are *who*, *which*, and *that*.

Who is used to represent *persons*; *which*, to represent *things*, and *that* to represent both *persons* and *things*.

What, *whatever*, *whatsoever*, *whoever*, *whosoever*, *whichever*, *whichsoever*, are called compound relative pronouns, because they represent both the antecedent and relative.

The compound relative pronouns include both the antecedent and relative, and are equivalent,—*what* to *that which*; *whatever* to *any thing which*, *whoever* or *whosoever*, to *any one who*.

The compound relatives are often used, both as adjectives and pronouns at the same time; as, "He will furnish *whatever books* you need."

Interrogative pronouns are used in asking questions; as, "Who came?"

The interrogative pronouns are *who*, *which*, and *what*. *Who* is used in inquiring for *persons*; *what* and *which* for *things*.

NOTE. Interrogative pronouns are declined like relatives.

What is a pronoun? Into how many classes are pronouns divided? What is a personal pronoun? Mention the personal pronouns. Mention the compound personal pronouns. What is a relative pronoun? Give them. Give the compound relative pronouns. What is an interrogative pronoun? Which are the interrogative pronouns?

LESSON XIII.

NUMBER OF THE NOUN OR PRONOUN.

Number is that property of a noun or pronoun which distinguishes one object from more than one.

The noun or pronoun has two numbers,—the *singular* and *plural*.

The singular number denotes but one object; as, *horse*, *river*, *nation*.

The plural denotes more than one object; as, *horses*, *rivers*, *nations*.

The plural of nouns is regularly formed,—

(1.) By adding *s*, when the singular ends with a sound that can unite with *s*; as, *book*, *books*; *tree*, *trees*;

(2.) By adding *es*, when the singular ends with a sound that cannot unite with *s*; as, *box*, *boxes*; *church*, *churches*.

FIRST LESSONS

Many nouns form their plurals more or less irregularly.

NOTE. Many nouns ending with *y*, preceded by a consonant, or with *f* or *fe*, follow the general rule for the addition, but undergo a change in their termination; as, *duty, duties*; *fly, flies*; *knife, knives*.

When *y* is preceded by a vowel, the plural is formed regularly; as, *day, days*; *play, plays*.

Nouns ending in *o*, preceded by a vowel, add *s*. Most nouns ending in *o*, preceded by a consonant, add *es*; yet, in *canto, grotto, quarto, junto, duodecimo, octavo, solo, halo, tyro*, only *s* is added.

The following nouns form the plural irregularly:—*child, children; man, men; woman, women; brother, brothers, or brethren; louse, lice; mouse, mice; die, dice, (dies, when it means a stamp; tooth, teeth; foot, feet; goose, geese; penny, pence, or pennies.*

Proper nouns, most abstract nouns, and nouns denoting substance, have no plural; as, *Boston, Philadelphia, iron, gold, ice, patience, idleness*.

Proper nouns, however, may take the plural form when two or more persons are classed together; as, “*the Cesars*;” “*the Scipios*.”

When a title is prefixed to a proper name so as to form one complex noun, the *name* is generally varied to form the plural; as, “*the Miss Browns*.” Usage is, however, by no means uniform. Many writers pluralize the title and not the name; as, “*the Misses Brown*.”

Some nouns are used only in the plural; as, *riches, scissors, shears, lungs*.

Some are alike in both numbers; as, *deer, sheep, swine*.

Many nouns from foreign languages retain their original plurals. The following are among the most common in use; as, *antithesis, antitheses; automaton, automata; axis, axes; bandit, banditti; beau, beaux; cherub, cherubim; criterion, criteria; datum, data; desideratum, desiderata; encomium, encomia; erratum, errata; focus, foci, formula, formulæ; hypothesis, hypotheses; madame, mesdames; magus, magi; memorandum, memoranda; monsieur, messieurs; nebula, nebulae; phenomenon, phenomena; radius, radii; seraph, seraphim; stimulus, stimuli; stratum, strata*.

In compound words, if the word denoting the principal idea is placed first, it is changed to form the plural; as, courts-martial but if placed last, the change takes place at the end of the word; as, hand-fuls.

The plural of the pronouns is formed irregularly; as, *I, we, thou, ye.*

What is number? How many numbers has a noun or pronoun? What does the singular denote? What does the plural denote? Give the general rules for the formation of the plural. (Read carefully the particular rules.)

LESSON XIV.

GENDER OF THE NOUN OR PRONOUN.

Gender is a distinction of nouns or pronouns in regard to sex.

There are three genders,—the *masculine, feminine, and neuter.*

Nouns or pronouns which denote males are of the *masculine* gender; as, *man, heroes, he.*

Nouns or pronouns which denote females are of the *feminine* gender; as, *girl, women, she.*

Nouns or pronouns which denote objects without life, are of the *neuter* gender; as, *tree, it; flowers, they.*

Nouns which are equally applicable to a male or female, are sometimes said to be of the *common gender*; as, *parent, teacher.* But such nouns must be either masculine or feminine, and the true gender may generally be determined by the connection.

By a figure of speech, (personification,) inanimate objects are spoken of as male or female. Thus, in speaking of a ship, we say “*She sails.*”

There are three methods of distinguishing the sexes : —

(1.) By using different words ; —

EXAMPLES. *Bachelor, maid; beau, belle; boar, sow; boy, girl; brother, sister; buck, doe; bull, cow; cock, hen; drake, duck; earl, countess; father, mother; gander, goose; horse, mare; husband, wife; king, queen; lad, lass; lord, lady; male, female; man, woman; nephew, niece; ram, ewe; son, daughter; stag, hind; uncle, aunt; wizard, witch.*

(2.) By a difference of termination ; —

EXAMPLES. *Abbot, abbess; actor, actress; administrator, administratrix; adulterer, adulteress; ambassador, ambassadress; author, authoress; baron, baroness; bridegroom, bride; benefactor, benefactress; count, countess; dauphin, dauphiness; deacon, deaconess; director, directress; duke, duchess; emperor, empress; executor, executrix; governor, governess; heir, heiress; hero, heroine; hunter, huntress; host, hostess; instructor, instructress; jew, jewess; landgrave, landgravine; lion, lioness; marquis, marchioness; monitor, monitress; patron, patroness; poet, poetess; priest, priestess; prince, princess; prophet, prophetess; shepherd, shepherdess; testator, testatrix; tiger, tigress; tutor, tutoress; widower, widow.*

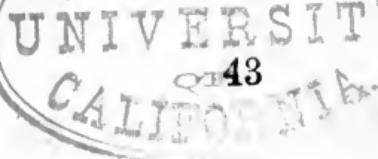
(3.) By prefixes and suffixes. —

EXAMPLES. *Landlord, landlady; gentleman, gentlewoman; peacock, peahen; he-goat, she-goat; man-servant, maid-servant; male child, female-child; cock-sparrow, hen-sparrow.*

Personal pronouns of the first and second person have no form to indicate gender.

Those of the third person have a distinct form for each gender; as, *he*, masculine; *she*, feminine; *it*, neuter.

What is gender? How many genders are there? What nouns or pronouns are of the masculine gender? What are of the feminine? What of the neuter? How many methods of distinguishing the sexes are there? What is the first? The second? The third?



LESSON XV.

PERSON OF THE NOUN OR PRONOUN.

NOTE. This lesson is to be studied in connection with the person of the subject.

Person is that property of a noun or pronoun which shows its relation to the speaker.

A noun or pronoun must represent either the *speaker*, the person *spoken to*, or the person or thing *spoken of*.

There are three persons, — the *first*, *second*, and *third*.

The *first* person denotes the speaker; as, “*I, John, saw.*”

The *second* person denotes the person spoken to; as, “*Children, obey your parents.*”

The *third* person denotes the person or thing spoken of; as, “*Thomas did not come;*” “*The harvest is abundant.*”

Nouns in the first and second persons are never used as the subject or object of a verb, but may be in apposition with either.

It is the appropriate office of the personal pronouns to denote person.

What is person? How many persons are there? What does the first person denote? The second? The third?

LESSON XVI.

THE CASE OF THE NOUN OR PRONOUN.

Case denotes the relation of a noun or pronoun to other words.

There are three cases,—the *nominative*, *possessive*, and *objective*.

The *nominative* case is the simplest form of the noun or pronoun, and is commonly used as the subject of a proposition; as, “*George* speaks;” “*The door* was shut.”

Besides being the subject of a proposition, the nominative case may be used, 1st, as the attribute of a proposition; 2d, it may be used to identify the subject; 3d, it may be independent of any other word.

The *possessive* case denotes the relation of property or possession; as, “*David's* harp.”

The possessive case of nouns is formed by adding an apostrophe (') and the letter *s* to the nominative; as, *man's*, *men's*.

When the plural ends in *s*, the apostrophe only is added; as, *boys'*.

So, sometimes when the singular ends in the sound of *s* or *z*, the apostrophe only is added; as, “*Moses' law*.”

The possessive case of the personal pronouns is formed irregularly; as, *I, my, or mine*; *THOU, thy, or thine*; *HE, his*; *SHE, her, or hers*.

The possessives, *mine, thine, hers, ours, yours, and theirs*, are used when the object possessed is understood. Hence they have the construction of the noun; as, “*Mine* is a pleasant task.”

When a noun or pronoun follows a transitive verb or a preposition, it is in the *objective* case; as,

"Thomas opened his *knife*;" "The bird sat on the *tree*."

The objective case of the noun is the same in form as the nominative; but the objective case of a personal pronoun, except *it*, is unlike the nominative; as, *I, me; thou, thee; he, him; she, her*.

DECLENSION OF NOUNS AND PRONOUNS.

The declension of a noun or pronoun is its variation to denote number and case.

EXAMPLES.

Declension of Nouns.

1. BOY.

	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	Boy,	Boys,
<i>Poss.</i>	Boy's,	Boys',
<i>Obj.</i>	Boy.	Boys.

2. FLY.

	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	Fly,	Flies,
<i>Poss.</i>	Fly's,	Flies',
<i>Obj.</i>	Fly.	Flies.

3. JOHN.

	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	John,	<i>Wanting.</i>
<i>Poss.</i>	John's,	—
<i>Obj.</i>	John.	—

4. GOODNESS.

	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	Goodness,	<i>Wanting.</i>
<i>Poss.</i>	Goodness',	—
<i>Obj.</i>	Goodness.	—

Declension of Personal Pronouns.

FIRST PERSON.

	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	I,	We,
<i>Poss.</i>	My or mine,	Our or ours,
<i>Obj.</i>	Me.	Us.

SECOND PERSON.

	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	Thou,	Ye or you,
<i>Poss.</i>	Thy or thine,	Your or Yours,
<i>Obj.</i>	Thee.	You.

THIRD PERSON. *Masculine.*

	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	He,	They,
<i>Poss.</i>	His,	Their or theirs,
<i>Obj.</i>	Him.	Them.

THIRD PERSON. *Feminine.*

	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	She,	They,
<i>Poss.</i>	Her or hers,	Their or theirs,
<i>Obj.</i>	Her.	Them.

THIRD PERSON. *Neuter.*

	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	It,	They,
<i>Poss.</i>	Its.	Their or theirs,
<i>Obj.</i>	It.	Them.

Relative and Interrogative Pronouns.

	<i>Sing. & Plur.</i>	<i>Sing. & Plur.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	Who,	Which,
<i>Poss.</i>	Whose,	Whose,
<i>Obj.</i>	Whom.	Which.

That, what, have no variation.

What does case denote? How many cases are there? What is the nominative case? What does the possessive case denote? How is the possessive formed? What is the objective case? What is the declension of a noun or pronoun? Repeat the examples.

LESSON XVII.

ADJECTIVE WORDS.

NOTE. All words which have the construction of the adjective, are here considered under the head of "*Adjective Words*," whatever may be their particular classification.

An *adjective* is a word used to limit or qualify the meaning of a noun.

All *adjective words* are divided into two classes,—*limiting* and *qualifying*.

I. — LIMITING ADJECTIVES.

A *limiting* adjective is used to *define* or *restrict* the meaning of a noun, without expressing any of its qualities; as, "the house;" "five books;" "Arabian horses."

ARTICLES. The particular limiting adjectives *the*, and *a* or *an* are called *articles*.

The is called the definite article, because it points out some particular thing; as, "the desk;" "the sun."

A or *an* is called an indefinite article, because it does not point out any particular thing; as, "a pen;" "an orchard."

An is used before a vowel sound, and *a* before a consonant sound; as, "an apple;" "a pin."

PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES. Those limiting adjectives which may, without the use of the article, represent a noun when understood, are called *pronominal adjectives* as, "That [book] is his; this is yours."

Qualifying adjectives may represent a noun when understood, but the article must be prefixed; as, "The good are happy."

The principal pronominal adjectives are,—*this, that, these, those, former, latter, which, what, each, every, either, neither, some, one, none, any, all, such, many, much*.

When such adjectives represent a noun understood, they are generally called *pronouns*. They may more properly be called *pronominal adjectives* used as nouns; as, "This is my book." The articles never represent a noun understood.

NUMERAL ADJECTIVES. Numeral adjectives are used to express number; as, *one, two, three, &c.*

Numerals are divided into two classes:—

Cardinal; as, *one, two, three, four, &c.*;—

Ordinal; as, *first, second, third, fourth, &c.*

NOTE. Adjectives, which denote *time* or *place*, are called *circumstantial*; as, "a morning walk;" "an eastern custom;" "a Turkish vessel."

II. — QUALIFYING ADJECTIVES.

A *qualifying* adjective is one which limits the meaning of a noun, by denoting some *property* or *quality*; as, "a *virtuous* man;" "a *running* horse."

To this class of adjectives belong the participles, which have the *signification* of the verb and the *construction* of the adjective.

When the participle is placed before the noun which it modifies, it is called a *participial adjective*; as, "The *rising* sun." When it is placed after the noun, and itself limited by other words, it is parsed as a participle; as, "The sun *rising* in the east."

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

When different objects are compared with each other, the adjective expressing the property by means of which they are compared, undergoes a change called *comparison*.

There are three degrees of comparison,— the *positive*, *comparative*, and *superlative*.

The *positive* simply denotes a quality; as, *righteous, pleasant*.

The *comparative* shows that one of two objects possesses a quality in a higher degree than the other; as, "This tree is *taller* than that."

The *superlative* shows that one of several objects possesses a quality in the highest degree, when compared with all the rest; as, "That pine is the *tallest* tree in the grove."

The comparative of monosyllables is regularly formed by adding *r* or *er*, and the superlative by adding *st* or *est*, to the positive; as, *wise, wiser, wisest; bold, bolder, boldest*.

The comparative of most adjectives of more than one syllable, is formed by prefixing *more* or *less*, and the superlative, by prefixing *most* or *least*, to the positive; as, *industrious, more industrious, most industrious*.

The following adjectives are compared irregularly:— *good, better, best; bad, worse, worst; ill, worse, worst; little, less or lesser, least; much, more, most; many, more, most; far, farther, farthest; near, nearer, nearest or next; late, later, latest or last; old, older or elder, oldest or eldest*.

What is an adjective? How are adjectives divided? What is a limiting adjective? What are *the*, *a*, and *an*, called? Which is the definite article? Which the indefinite? What are pronominal adjectives? What are numeral adjectives? What is a qualifying adjective? To what class of adjective words does the participle belong? When is the participle strictly an adjective? What is comparison? How many degrees of comparison are there? Name them. What does the positive denote? The comparative? The superlative? How are the comparative and superlative degrees of monosyllables formed? How are the comparative and superlative degrees of most adjectives of more than one syllable formed?

LESSON XVIII.

CLASSES OF VERBS.

A *verb* is a word which expresses *being*, *action*, or *state*; as, *be*, *read*, *sleep*, *is loved*.

The being, action, or state, may be *affirmed*, *assumed*, or *used abstractedly*; as, "George runs;" "George running;" "to run."

Verbs are divided, according to their *use*, into *transitive* and *intransitive*.

A *transitive* verb requires the addition of an object to complete its meaning; as, "James struck John."

An *intransitive* verb does not require the addition of an object to complete its meaning; as, "The horse runs."

Verbs are divided, according to their *form*, into *regular* and *irregular*.

A *regular* verb is one in which the past tense and past participle are formed by adding *d* or *ed* to the present ; as, *love, loved, loved* ; *gain, gained, gained*.

An *irregular* verb is one in which the past tense and past participle are formed in some other way ; as, *see, saw, seen* ; *write, wrote, written*.

The present, past, and past participle of a verb are called its *principal parts*.

The following list contains the principal parts of the irregular verbs : —

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Abide,	Abode,	Abode.
Am,	Was,	Been.
Awake,	Awoke, R.*	Awaked.
Bear, (<i>to bring forth,</i>)	Bore,	Born.
Bear, (<i>to carry,</i>)	Bore,	Borne.
Beat,	Beat,	Beaten, beat.
Begin,	Began,	Begun.
Bend,	Bend, R.	Bent.
Bereave,	Bereft, R.	Bereft, R.
Beseech,	Besought,	Besought.
Bid,	Bid, bade,	Bidden, bid.
Bind,	Bound,	Bound.
Bite,	Bit,	Bitten, bit.
Bleed,	Bled,	Bled.
Blow,	Blew,	Blown.
Break,	Broke,	Broken.
Breed,	Bred,	Bred.
Bring,	Brought,	Brought.
Build,	Built, R.	Built.
Burn,	Burnt, R.	Burnt, R.

* Those verbs whose past tense or past participle is followed by R., have also a regular form ; as, *awoke* or *awaked*.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>
Burst,	Burst,	Burst.
Buy,	Bought,	Bought.
Cast,	Cast,	Cast.
Catch,	Caught, R.	Caught, R.
Chide,	Chid,	Chidden, chid.
Choose,	Chose,	Chosen.
Cleave, (<i>to adhere,</i>)	Cleaved,	Cleaved.
Cleave, (<i>to split,</i>)	Clove, cleft,	Cloven.
Cling,	Clung,	Clung.
Clothe,	Clad, R.	Clad, R.
Come,	Came,	Come.
Cost,	Cost,	Cost.
Creep,	Crept,	Crept.
Crow,	Crew, R.	Crowed.
Cut,	Cut,	Cut.
Dare,	Durst,	Dared.
Deal,	Dealt, R.	Dealt, R.
Dig,	Dug, R.	Dug, R.
Do,	Did,	Done.
Draw,	Drew,	Drawn.
Dream,	Dreamt, R.	Dreamt, R.
Drink,	Drank,	Drunk, drank.
Drive,	Drove,	Driven.
Dwell,	Dwelt, R.	Dwelt, R.
Eat,	Ate, eat,	Eaten.
Fall,	Fell,	Fallen.
Feed,	Fed,	Fed.
Feel,	Felt,	Felt.
Fight,	Fought,	Fought.
Find,	Found,	Found.
Flee,	Fled,	Fled.
Fling,	Flung,	Flung.
Fly,	Flew,	Flown.
Forsake,	Forsook,	Forsaken.
Freeze,	Froze,	Frozen.
Freight,	Freighted,	Fraught, R.
Get,	Got,	Got, gotten.
Gild,	Gilt, R.	Gilt, R.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Gird,	Girt, R.	Girt, R.
Give,	Gave,	Given.
Go,	Went,	Gone.
Grave,	Graved	Graven, R.
Grind,	Ground,	Ground.
Grow,	Grew,	Grown.
Hang,	Hung,	Hung.
Have,	Had,	Had.
Hear,	Heard,	Heard.
Heave,	Hove, R.	Hoven, R.
Hew,	Hewed,	Hewn, R.
Hide,	Hid,	Hidden, hid.
Hit,	Hit,	Hit.
Hold,	Held,	Held.
Hurt,	Hurt,	Hurt.
Keep,	Kept,	Kept.
Knee,	Knelt, R.	Knelt, R.
Knit,	Knit, R.	Knit, R.
Know,	Knew,	Known.
Lade,	Laded,	Laden.
Lay,	Laid,	Laid.
Lead,	Led,	Led.
Leave,	Left,	Left.
Lend,	Lent,	Lent.
Let,	Let,	Let.
Lie, (<i>to recline.</i>)	Lay,	Lain.
Light,	Lit, R.	Lit, R.
Load,	Loaded,	Laden, R.
Lose,	Lost,	Lost.
Make,	Made,	Made.
Mean,	Meant,	Meant
Meet.	Met,	Met.
Mow,	Mowed,	Mown, R.
Pay,	Paid,	Paid.
Pen, (<i>to enclose.</i>)	Pent, R.	Pent, R.
Put,	Put,	Put.
Quit,	Quit, R.	Quit, R.
Read,	Read,	Read.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Pass. Participle.</i>
Rend,	Rent,	Rent.
Rid,	Rid,	Rid.
Ride,	Rode,	Ridden.
Ring,	Rang, rung	Rung.
Rise,	Rose,	Risen.
Rive,	Rived,	Riven.
Run,	Ran,	Run.
Saw	Sawed,	Sawn, <i>r.</i>
Say	Said,	Said.
See,	Saw,	Seen.
Seek,	Sought,	Sought.
Seeth,	Sod, <i>r.</i>	Sodden.
Sell,	Sold,	Sold.
Send,	Sent,	Sent.
Set,	Set,	Set.
Sit,	Sat,	Sat.
Shake,	Shook,	Shaken.
Shape,	Shaped,	Shapen, <i>it.</i>
Shave,	Shaved,	Shaven, <i>r.</i>
Shear,	Sheared,	Shorn, <i>r.</i>
Shed,	Shed,	Shed.
Shine,	Shone,	Shone.
Shoe,	Shod,	Shod.
Shoot,	Shot,	Shot.
Show,	Showed,	Shown.
Shred,	Shred,	Shred.
Shrink,	Shrunk, shrank.	Shrunk.
Shut,	Shut,	Shut.
Sing,	Sang, sung,	Sung.
Sink,	Sunk, sank,	Sunk.
Slay,	Slew,	Slain.
Sleep,	Slept,	Slept.
Slide,	Slid,	Slidden, slid.
Sling,	Slung,	Slung.
Slink,	Slunk,	Slunk.
Slit,	Slit,	Slit, <i>r.</i>
Smite	Smote,	Smitten, smit.
Sow, (<i>to scatter,</i>)	Sowed,	Sown, <i>r.</i>

<i>Present</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>
Speak,	Spoke,	Spoken.
Speed,	Sped,	Sped.
Spell,	Spelt, R.	Spelt, R.
Spend,	Spent,	Spent.
Spill,	Spilt, R.	Spilt, R.
Spin,	Spun,	Spun.
Spit,	Spit,	Spit.
Split,	Split,	Split.
Spread,	Spread,	Spread.
Spring,	Sprang, sprung,	Sprung.
Stand,	Stood,	Stood.
Steal,	Stole,	Stolen.
Stick,	Stuck,	Stuck.
Sting,	Stung,	Stung.
Stride,	Strode, strid,	Stridden.
Strike,	Struck,	Struck, stricken.
String,	Strung,	Strung.
Strive,	Strove,	Striven.
Strow or strew,	Strowed or strewed,	Strown, strewn, R.
Swear,	Swore,	Sworn.
Sweat,	Sweat, R.	Sweat, R.
Sweep,	Swept,	Swept.
Swell,	Swelled,	Swollen, R.
Swim,	Swam, swum,	Swum.
Swing.	Swung,	Swung.
Take,	Took,	Taken.
Teach,	Taught,	Taught.
Tear,	Tore,	Torn.
Tell,	Told,	Told.
Think,	Thought,	Thought.
Thrive,	Throve,	Thriven.
Throw,	Threw,	Thrown.
Thrust,	Thrust,	Thrust.
Tread,	Trod,	Trodden, trod.
Wax,	Waxed,	Waxen, R.
Wear,	Wore,	Worn.
Weave,	Wove,	Woven.
Weep,	Wept,	Wept.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Wet,	Wet, R.	Wet, R.
Whet,	Whet, R.	Whet, R.
Win,	Won,	Won.
Wind,	Wound,	Wound.
Work,	Wrought,	Wrought, R.
Wring,	Wrung,	Wrung.
Write,	Wrote,	Written.

AUXILIARIES.

An *auxiliary* verb is one which is employed in conjugating other verbs. The auxiliaries are, *do*, *be*, *have*, *shall*, *will*, *may*, *can*, *must*.

1. The auxiliaries are used to form the modes and tenses of other verbs.
2. They give peculiar shades of meaning to the modes and tenses in which they are used.

Be is the *copula*; its uses have been explained.

Do, in declarative sentences, denotes *emphasis*.

Have denotes *completion*. It is used in the perfect tenses.

May denotes *possibility* or *permission*.

Can denotes *ability* or *power*.

Must denotes *necessity* or *obligation*.

Shall and *will*, in general, denote *futurity*.

NOTE. In declarative sentences, *shall*, in the first person, and *will*, in the second and third, *predict* or express *determination*; while *will*, in the first, and *shall*, in the second and third, express a *volition*, or *promise*. In interrogative sentences, the above order in the use of these two auxiliaries is reversed.

3. They are used to introduce *direct* interrogative sentences; as, "Does he write?" "May we go?"

NOTE. *Do*, which denotes emphasis in declarative sentences, denotes merely *inquiry* in interrogative sentences; it must be supplied in the latter, where it would not be used in the former; as "It snows;" "Does it snow?"

4. They are used at the close of an elliptical clause, to represent the principal verb ; as, " *You must write as he does*, i. e., *writes*."

5. The auxiliaries, as such, have only two tenses ; the *present* and the *past*, except *must*, which has no variation. They may be thus represented :—

CONJUGATION OF THE AUXILIARIES.

	<i>Singular.</i>			<i>Plural.</i>		
	1st Per.	2d Per.	3d Per.	1st Per.	2d Per.	3d Per.
<i>Present,</i>	<i>I</i>	<i>Thou</i>	<i>He</i>	<i>We</i>	<i>You</i>	<i>They</i>
	Am	art	is	are	are	are
	Do	dost	does	do	do	do
	Have	hast	has	have	have	have
	Will	wilt	will	will	will	will
	Shall	shalt	shall	shall	shall	shall
	May	mayst	may	may	may	may
	Can	canst	can	can	can	can
<i>Past,</i>	Must	must	must	must	must	must
	Was	wast	was	were	were	were
	Did	didst	did	did	did	did
	Had	hadst	had	had	had	had
	Would	wouldst	would	would	would	would
	Should	shouldst	should	should	should	should
	Might	mightst	might	might	might	might
	Could	couldst	could	could	could	could

Defective verbs are those in which some of the parts are wanting. They are, *beware*, *quoth*, *ought*, and all the auxiliaries except *do*, *be*, and *have*. These, when used as principal verbs, have all their parts.

What is a verb ? How may the being, action, or state be used ? How are verbs divided according to their use ? What is a transitive verb ? An intransitive verb ? How are verbs divided according to their form ? What is a regular verb ? What are irregular verbs ? Which are the principal parts of verbs ? What are auxiliary verbs ? What are the principal uses of the auxiliaries ? What are defective verbs ?

LESSON XIX.

NUMBER, PERSON, AND VOICE OF THE VERB.

The number and person of the verb are properties which show its agreement with the subject. Like the subject, the verb has two numbers and three persons.

In the solemn style, the second person singular of the verb, in the present tense, is formed by adding *st* or *est* to the first; but in the common style, it ends like the second person plural; the third person singular is formed by adding *s* or *es*, and formerly *eth*.

Voice is applied to the two forms of the transitive verb, and is either *active* or *passive*.

The *active* voice represents the subject as acting; as, "John *struck* William."

The *passive* voice represents the subject as being acted upon; as, "William *was struck* by John."

The passive verb is formed by adding the passive participle of a transitive verb to the copula.

Any sentence containing a transitive verb may take two equivalent forms,—one in which the verb is in the active voice, and the other in which it is in the passive. When the verb is in the passive voice, the agent is in the objective case following *by*; as, "William *was struck by John*." Sometimes the agent is omitted; as, "A plot *was discovered*."

What is meant by the number and person of the verb? How many numbers and persons have verbs? What is voice? How many voices are there? What does the active voice represent? What does the passive voice represent? How is the passive verb formed?

LESSON XX.

MODE OF THE VERB.

Mode shows the *manner* in which an attribute is asserted of the subject.

There are commonly reckoned five modes, — the *indicative*, *potential*, *subjunctive*, *imperative*, and *infinitive*.

The *indicative* mode asserts a thing as *actually existing*; as, “James is rich;” “George writes.”

The *potential* mode asserts a thing as *possible*, *probable*, or *necessary*; as, “James may be rich;” “George must write.”

The *subjunctive* mode asserts a thing as *conditional* or *doubtful*; as, “If James be rich;” “Should George write.”

The *imperative* mode asserts a *command*, an *exhortation*, an *entreaty*, or a *permission*; as, “Write;” “Go thou;” “Be satisfied.”

The *infinitive** represents an attribute as an abstract noun; as, “To be rich;” “To write.”

The indicative, potential, and imperative modes are used in principal propositions. The subjunctive is always used in subordinate

* The infinitive is here placed among the modes, because it has been thus ranked by common consent; yet it is as really a participle as the forms which bear that name. It does not assert action at all, and therefore cannot properly be said to have mode. It is the simple name of the verb, taken abstractly, and partakes of the properties of the noun and verb, just as the participle partakes of the properties of the adjective and verb. Both are used in abridged propositions, one in reducing substantive, and the other in reducing adjective clauses.

propositions, and the infinitive and participles, in abridged propositions.

NOTE. The indicative and potential modes are often used in subordinate propositions. The imperative mode is sometimes made subordinate in direct quotation; as, "God said, Let there be light."

PARTICIPLES.

A participle is a form of the verb by which the being, action, or state, is used as an adjective.

The participle is so called, because it *participates* of the properties of the verb and adjective.

There are two participles,—the *present* and *perfect*; as, *reading*, *having read*.

These two participles correspond to the present and perfect tenses in each of the three grand divisions of time.

Transitive verbs have an *active* and *passive* participle.

EXAMPLES.

ACTIVE.

Present. Loving,

Perfect. Having loved,

PASSIVE.

Loved or being loved.

Having been loved.

Though there are but two distinct participles, there are three different forms called participles,—the *present*, the *past*, and the *perfect*.

The past participle is never used except in combination with some modification of *have*, to form the perfect tenses; as, *have loved*, *had loved*, *to have loved*, *having loved*. It belongs to all verbs transitive and intransitive. It has an active signification, denotes past time, but is never used, like the other forms, to limit a noun by expressing an assumed attribute. Its entire use is, to aid in the formation of the tenses. The past participle is, however, identical in form with the present passive participle, when used without *being*. Mark the difference in the following examples:—"The

boy has *respected* the wishes of his parents ;" "The boy lives (being) *respected* by all." In the last example, "respected" has a passive signification, denotes present time, and limits "boy" by assuming (not affirming) that he is in a certain state. This last is called the *passive* participle of "respect;" *respecting* being the corresponding *active* participle. Intransitive verbs have no passive participle.

The present active participle denotes an action or state present but unfinished at the time denoted by the principal verb; as, "We *found* him *sitting* in a chair."

The present passive participle denotes the reception of an act, which is present at the time denoted by the principal verb; as, "He *lives loved* by all."

The perfect active participle denotes an action or state past and completed at the time denoted by the principal verb; as, "Having *finished* his speech, he *sat* down."

The perfect passive participle denotes the reception of an act past and completed at the time denoted by the principle verb; as, "Having *been driven* from home, he *enlisted* in the army."

Participles, like the subordinate clauses for which they stand, denote a time *present* or *past* in relation to the principal verb, and not in relation to the speaker. Hence the present participle may denote, with reference to the speaker, *present*, *past*, or *future* time. So the perfect participle may denote an act completed in *past*, *present*, or *future* time. It is worthy of notice, that each grand division of time has two tenses,— a *present* and a *perfect*; and that this distinction exists in all the verbal forms, the infinitive and participles as well as the modes properly so called.

A participle, like an adjective, may be either assumed or predicated of a noun; as, "A boat

sailing on the water is a pleasant object ; ” “ The boat *is sailing* on the water.”

An assumed participle, with the words depending upon it, is equivalent to a subordinate clause.

The active participle when predicated, constitutes, with the copula, the *progressive form* of the verb ; as, “ The farmer *was reaping*.”

The passive participle, when predicated, forms, with the copula, the *passive verb* ; as, “ His expectations *were realized*.”

What does mode show ? How many modes are there ? What is the indicative mode ? The potential ? The subjunctive ? The imperative ? The infinitive ? What is a participle ? How many participles are there ? How many participles have transitive verbs ? How many forms called participles are there ? What does the present active participle denote ? What does the present passive participle denote ? What does the perfect active participle denote ? What does the perfect passive participle denote ? How may participles be used ? What does the active participle constitute, when predicated ? What the passive ?

LESSON XXI.

TENSE OF THE VERB.

Tense denotes the *time* of an action or event.

There are three divisions of time,—the *past*, the *present*, and the *future*.

Each division has two tenses,—an *absolute* and a *relative*. There are, therefore, six tenses,—three absolute and three relative.

The absolute tenses take the name of the division to which they belong, namely, the *present tense*, the *past tense*, and the *future tense*.

The relative tenses add to the name of the division the word "perfect;" — *present perfect*, *past perfect*, *future perfect*.

The present tense denotes present time; as, "I write."

The present perfect tense denotes past time completed in the present; as, "I have written."

The past tense denotes past time; as, "I wrote."

The past perfect tense denotes past time completed in the past; as "I had written."

The future tense denotes future time; as, "I shall write."

The future perfect tense denotes a future time completed in the future; as, "I shall have written."

NOTE. It is believed that the above division of the tenses better represents the different relations of time than the old; but if any prefer the old, the following table will enable them to use it.

<i>Old division.</i>	<i>New division.</i>	<i>Examples.</i>
Present tense,	Present tense,	I write.
Imperfect tense,	Past tense,	I wrote,
Perfect tense,	Present perfect tense,	I have written,
Pluperfect tense,	Past perfect tense,	I had written,
First future tense,	Future tense,	I shall or will write,
Second future tense.	Future perfect tense.	I shall have written.

FORMS OF THE VERB.

There are three different forms of the verb, in the active voice, namely, the *common*, the *emphatic*, the *progressive*, the passive has but one form.

COMMON FORM.

The common form denotes a customary act; its tenses are thus formed:—

INDICATIVE MOOD.

- | | |
|-------------------------|--|
| <i>Absolute Tenses.</i> | The <i>present</i> is the first or simple form of the verb, as, <i>love</i> .
The <i>past</i> is the second form of the verb ; as, <i>loved</i> .
The <i>future</i> is formed by joining to the simple verb the auxiliary <i>shall</i> or <i>will</i> ; as, <i>shall love</i> , <i>will love</i> . |
| <i>Relative Tenses.</i> | The <i>present perfect</i> is formed by joining the present tense of <i>have</i> to the past participle of the verb ; as, <i>have loved</i> .
The <i>past perfect</i> is formed by joining the past tense of <i>have</i> to the past participle ; as, <i>had loved</i> .
The <i>future perfect</i> is formed by joining the future tense of <i>have</i> to the past participle ; as, <i>shall have loved</i> . |

POTENTIAL MODE.

- | | |
|-------------------------|--|
| <i>Absolute Tenses.</i> | The <i>present potential</i> is formed by joining the present tense of <i>may</i> , <i>can</i> , or <i>must</i> to the simple or first form of the verb ; as, <i>may</i> , <i>can</i> , or <i>must love</i> .
The <i>past potential</i> is formed by joining the past tenses of <i>may</i> , <i>can</i> , <i>will</i> , or <i>shall</i> , to the simple form of the verb ; as, <i>might</i> , <i>could</i> , <i>would</i> , or <i>should love</i> . |
| <i>Relative Tenses.</i> | The <i>present perfect</i> is formed by joining the present potential of <i>have</i> to the past participle ; as, <i>may</i> , <i>can</i> , or <i>must have loved</i> .
The <i>past perfect</i> is formed by joining the past potential of <i>have</i> to the past participle ; as, <i>might</i> , <i>could</i> , <i>would</i> , or <i>should have loved</i> . |

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

The subjunctive mode is the same in form as the indicative or potential, with *if*, *unless*, *though*, &c., prefixed ; as, *if I love if I can love*.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

The imperative has but one tense,—the *present*,—which is the simple form of the verb, generally used without the subject expressed ; as, *love*.

INFINITIVE MODE.

The infinitive mode has two tenses,—a *present* and a *perfect*. The *present* is the first form of the verb joined to *to*; as, *to love*.

The *perfect* is formed by joining the present infinitive of *have* to the past participle of the verb; as, *to have loved*.

PARTICIPLES.

The *present* participle is formed by adding *ing* to the first form of the verb; * as, *loving*.

The *past* participle is formed, for regular verbs, by adding *ed* to the simple verb; * as, *loved*.

The *perfect* participle is formed by joining the present participle of *have* to the past participle; as, *having loved*.

EMPHATIC FORM.

The emphatic form is used to express emphasis; it belongs to the active voice of the indicative and imperative modes. It is formed by joining the auxiliary *do* to the first form of the verb, for the present tense, and *did* to the same, for the past tense; as, *do love*, *do thou love*, *did love*.

PROGRESSIVE FORM.

The *progressive* form represents an unfinished act; it is the common form of the copula, *to be*, added to the present participle; as, *am loving*, *have been loving*, &c.

PASSIVE FORM.

The *passive* form denotes the reception of an act; it is the common form of the copula, *to be*, joined to the *passive* participle, (same in form as the past participle;) as, *is loved*, *has been loved*, &c.

* When the simple verb ends in *e* the *e* should be dropped, according to Rule II. p. 29.

CONJUGATION.

The *conjugation* of a verb is the regular arrangement of its several *modes, tenses, voices, numbers, and persons*.

The following is the conjugation of the verb TO BE:—

INDICATIVE MODE.

ABSOLUTE TENSES.

Present Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I am.	We are.
2. Thou art.*	You are.†
3. He is.	They are.

Past Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I was.	We were.
2. Thou wast.	You were.
3. He was.	They were.

Future Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I shall or will be.	We shall or will be.
2. Thou shalt or wilt be.	You shall or will be.
3. He shall or will be.	They shall or will be

RELATIVE TENSES.

Present Perfect.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I have been.	We have been.
2. Thou hast been.	You have been.
3. He has been.	They have been.

* *Thou* is used in the *solemn or poetical style*, but *you* is used in the singular in the common style; as, *I am, you are, he is.*

† *Ye* is also used in the plural; thus, *Ye or you are.*

Past Perfect.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I had been.	We had been.
2. Thou hadst been.	You had been.
3. He had been.	They had been

Future Perfect.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I shall have been.	We shall have been
2. Thou wilt have been.	You will have been.
3. He will have been.	They will have been

POTENTIAL MODE.

ABSOLUTE TENSES.

Present Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I may be.	We may be.
2. Thou mayst be.	You may be.
3. He may be.	They may be.

Past Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I might be.	We might be.
2. Thou mightst be.	You might be.
3. He might be.	They might be.

RELATIVE TENSES.

Present Perfect.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I may have been.	We may have been.
2. Thou mayst have been.	You may have been.
3. He may have been.	They may have been.

Past Perfect.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I might have been.	We might have been.
2. Thou mightst have been.	You might have been.
3. He might have been.	They might have been.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

ABSOLUTE TENSES.

Present Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. If I am.	If we are.
2. If thou art.	If you are.
3. If he is.	If they are.

Past Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. If I was.	If we were.
2. If thou wast.	If you were.
3. If he was.	If they were.

Future Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. If I shall or will be.	If we shall or will be.
2. If thou shalt or wilt be.	If you shall or will be.
3. If he shall or will be.	If they shall or will be

RELATIVE TENSES

Present Perfect.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. If I have been.	If we have been.
2. If thou hast been.	If you have been.
3. If he has been.	If they have been.

Past Perfect.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. If I had been.	If we had been.
2. If thou hadst been.	If you had been.
3. If he had been.	If they had been.

Future Perfect.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. If I shall have been.	If we shall have been.
2. If thou shalt have been.	If you shall have been.
3. If he shall have been	If they shall have been.

Besides the forms already given, the subjunctive has another for the present and past.

Present Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. If I be.	If we be.
2. If thou be.	If you be.
3. If he be.	If they be.

Past Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. If I were.	If we were.
2. If thou wert.	If you were.
3. If he were.	If they were.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Be, or Be thou.	Be ye or you.

INFINITIVE MODE.

<i>Present Tense,</i>	To be.
<i>Present Perfect,</i>	To have been.

PARTICIPLES.

<i>Present,</i>	Being.
<i>Past,</i>	Been.
<i>Perfect,</i>	Having been.

Synopsis is a short view of a verb, showing its forms through the modes and tenses in a single number and person. The following is a synopsis, 1st person singular of HAVE :—

INDICATIVE MODE.

ABSOLUTE TENSES.

I have.	I had.	I shall have.
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RELATIVE TENSES.

I have had. I had had. I shall have had.

Let the learner write out the second and third persons in the same manner, and complete the synopsis in all the modes.

The regular verb LOVE is thus conjugated :—

INDICATIVE MODE.

NOTE. The four forms—the *common*, *emphatic*, *progressive*, and *passive*—are arranged together. The pronouns are placed at the head of the column, and should be taken in connection with the forms below them. When read downwards, the several forms in each person will be given ; when read across the page, the several persons in each form will be given.

Present Tense.

	1.... Singular.	2.... Singular.	3.... Singular
	I	THOU	HE, SHE, IT
ACT.	{ Com. love,	lovest,	loves,
	{ Emp. do love,	dost love,	does love,
	{ Prog. am loving,	art loving,	is loving,
PAS.	am loved,	art loved,	is loved.
	1.... Plurul.	2.... Plural.	3. .Plural
	WE	YE or You	THEY
ACT.	{ Com. love,	love,	love,
	{ Emp. do love,	do love,	do love,
	{ Prog. are loving,	are loving,	are loving,
PAS.	are loved,	are loved,	are loved.

Past Tense.

	1 .. Singular.	2.. Singular.	3.. Singular
	I	THOU	HE, SHE, IT
ACT.	{ Com. loved,	lovedst,	loved,
	{ Emp. did love,	didst love,	did love,
	{ Prog. was loving,	wast loving,	was loving,
PAS.	was loved,	wast loved,	was loved.

	1...Plural.	2....Plural.	3... .Plural.
	WE	YE or YOU	THEY
ACT.	{ Com. loved, Emp. did love, Prog. were loving,	loved, did love, were loving,	loved, did love, were loving,
PAS.	were loved,	were loved,	were loved.

Future Tense.

	1....Singular.	2...Singular.	3....Singular
	I	THOU	HE, SHE, IT
ACT.	{ Com. shall * love, shalt love,	shall love,	shall love,
	{ Prog. shall be loving, shalt be loving,	shall be loving,	shall be loving,
PAS.	shall be loved, shalt be loved,	shall be loved.	shall be loved.

	1....Plural.	2....Plural.	3....Plural.
	WE	YE or YOU	THEY
ACT.	{ Com. shall love, shall love,	shall love,	shall love,
	{ Prog. shall be loving, shall be loving,	shall be loving,	shall be loving,
PAS.	shall be loved, shall be loved,	shall be loved.	shall be loved.

Present Perfect.

	1....Singular.	2....Singular.	3....Singular.
	I	THOU	HE, SHE, IT
ACT.	{ Com. have loved, hast loved,	has loved,	has loved,
	{ Prog. have been loving, hast been loving,	has been loving,	has been loving,
PAS.	have been loved, hast been loved,	has been loved.	has been loved.

	1....Plural.	2....Plural.	3....Plural.
	WE	YE or YOU	THEY
ACT.	{ Com. have loved, have loved,	have loved,	have loved,
	{ Prog. have been loving, have been loving,	have been loving,	have been loving,
PAS.	have been loved, have been loved,	have been loved.	have been loved.

Past Perfect.

	1....Singular.	2....Singular.	3... .Singular.
	I	THOU	HE, SHE, IT
ACT	{ Com. had loved, hadst loved,	had loved,	had loved,
	{ Prog. had been loving, hadst been loving,	had been loving,	had been loving,
PAS.	had been loved, hadst been loved,	had been loved.	had been loved.

* The pupil should be accustomed to use either auxiliary, *shall* or *will* (See auxiliaries, *shall* and *will*.)

	1....Plural	2....Plural.	3....Plural.
	WE	YE or YOU	THEY
ACT.	{ Com. had loved,	had loved,	had loved,
	{ Prog. had been loving, had been loving, had been loving,		
PAS. had been loved, had been loved, had been loved.		

Future Perfect.

	1....Singular,	2....Singular.
	I	THOU
ACT.	{ Com. shall have loved,	shalt have loved,
	{ Prog. shall have been loving,	shalt have been loving,
PAS. shall have been loved,	shalt have been loved,

	3....Singular.
	HE, SHE, IT
ACT.	{ Com. shall have loved,
	{ Prog. shall have been loving,
PAS. shall have been loved.

	1....Plural.	2....Plural.
	WE	YE or YOU
ACT.	{ Com. shall have loved,	shall have loved,
	{ Prog. shall have been loving,	shall have been loving,
PAS. shall have been loved,	shall have been loved.

	3....Plural.
	THEY
ACT.	{ Com. shall have loved,
	{ Prog. shall have been loving,
PAS. shall have been loved.

POTENTIAL MODE.

Present Tense.

	1....Singular.	2....Singular.	3....Singular.
	I	THOU	HE, SHE, IT
ACT.	{ Com. may * love,	mayst love,	may love,
	{ Prog. may be loving,	mayst be loving,	may be loving
PAS. may be loved,	mayst be loved,	may be loved.

* Let the pupil use also the auxiliaries *can* and *must*, in the present and present perfect tenses; and *could*, *would*, and *should*, in the past and past perfect tenses.



IN GRAMMAR.

	1....Plural.	2....Plural.	3....Plural.
	WE	YE or You	THEY
ACT. { Com.	may love,	may love,	may love,
Prog.	may be loving,	may be loving,	may be loving,
PAS.	may be loved,	may be loved,	may be loved.

Past Tense.

	1....Singular.	2....Singular.	3....Singular.
	I	THOU	HE, SHE, IT
ACT. { Com.	might love,	mightst love,	might love,
Prog.	might be loving,	mightst be loving,	might be loving,
PAS.	might be loved,	mightst be loved,	might be loved.

	1....Plural.	2....Plural.	3....Plural.
	WE	YE or You	THEY
ACT. { Com.	might love,	might love,	might love,
Prog.	might be loving,	might be loving,	might be loving,
PAS.	might be loved,	might be loved,	might be loved.

Present Perfect Tense.

	1....Singular.	2....Singular.
	I	THOU
ACT. { Com.	may have loved,	mayst have loved,
Prog.	may have been loving,	mayst have been loving,
PAS.	may have been loved,	mayst have been loved.

	3....Singular.
	HE, SHE, IT
ACT. { Com.	may have loved,
Prog.	may have been loving,
PAS.	may have been loved.

	1....Plural.	2....Plural.
	WE	YE or You
ACT. { Com.	may have loved,	may have loved,
Prog.	may have been loving,	may have been loving,
PAS.	may have been loved,	may have been loved.

	3....Plural.
	THEY
ACT. { Com.	may have loved,
Prog.	may have been loving,
PAS.	may have been loved.

Past Perfect Tense.

1....*Singular.*

I

2....*Singular.*

THOU

ACT. { *Com.* might have loved, *mightst have loved,*
Prog. might have been loving, *mightst have been loving,*
PAS. might have been loved, *mightst have been loved.*

3....*Singular.*

HE, SHE, IT

ACT. { *Com.* might have loved,
Prog. might have been loving,
PAS. might have been loved.

1....*Plural.*

WE

2....*Plural.*

YE or YOU

ACT. { *Com.* might have loved, *might have loved,*
Prog. might have been loving, *might have been loving,*
PAS. might have been loved, *might have been loved.*

3....*Plural.*

THEY

ACT. { *Com.* might have loved,
Prog. might have been loving,
PAS. might have been loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

The subjunctive mode is the same as the indicative or potential, with *if* prefixed.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

*Singular.**Plural.*

ACT. { *Com.* Love, or Love thou. Love, or Love ye or you.
Emp. Do thou Love. Do ye or you love.
Prog. Be thou loving. Be ye or you loving.
PAS. Be thou loved. Be ye or you loved.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

ACT. { *Com.* To love.
Prog. To be loving.
PAS. To be loved.

Perfect Tense.

ACT { *Com.* To have loved.
 { *Prog.* To have been loving.
PAS. To have been loved.

PARTICIPLES.

Pres { **ACT.** { Loving, (*common form.*)
 { Being loving, (*progressive form.*)
 { **PAS.** . Being loved, or loved.

Past, Loved, (used only in combination.)

Perf. { **ACT.** { Having loved, (*common form.*)
 { Having been loving, (*progressive form.*)
 { **PAS.** . Having been loved.

NOTE. Some few intransitive verbs take the passive form ; as, "I am come ;" "The sun is risen ;" "He is fallen."

What does tense denote ? How many divisions of tense are there ? How many tenses has each division ? What are they ? How many tenses are there in all ? What does the present tense denote ? What does the present perfect tense denote ? What does the past tense denote ? What does the past perfect tense denote ? What does the future tense denote ? What does the future perfect tense denote ? How many forms have verbs in the active voice ? How many in the passive ? Mention the forms. What is conjugation ? Conjugate TO BE. What is a synopsis ? Give a synopsis of TO HAVE. Give also a synopsis of TO BE. Conjugate TO LOVE. Give a synopsis of it.

LESSON XXII.

ADVERBS.

AN *adverb* is a word used to modify the meaning of a *verb*, *adjective*, *participle*, or other *adverb*

Adverbs may be divided into four general classes, — adverbs of *place*, of *time*, of *cause*, of *manner*.

Adverbs of *place* answer the questions, *Where?* *Whither?* *Whence?* as, *here*, *there*, *above*, *yonder*, *below*, *somewhere*, *back*, *upwards*, *downwards*, &c.

Adverbs of *time* answer the questions, *When?* *How long?* *How often?* as, *then*, *yesterday*, *always*, *ever*, *continually*, *often*, *frequently*, &c.

Adverbs of *cause* answer the questions, *Why?* *Wherefore?* as, *why*, *wherefore*, *therefore*, *then*.

NOTE. Casual relations are commonly expressed by *phrases* and *clauses*.

Adverbs of *manner* answer the question, *How?* as, *elegantly*, *faithfully*, *fairly*, &c. They are generally derived from adjectives denoting quality.

Under this head may be classed those which answer the question, *How?* in respect to *quantity* or *quality*; as, *How much?* *How good?* &c.; as, *too*, *very*, *greatly*, *chiefly*, *perfectly*, *mainly*, *wholly*, *totally*, *quite*, *exceedingly*.

Modal adverbs which show the manner of the *assertion* (see Modes, Lesson XX.) belong to this class also. The following are the principal modal adverbs: — *yes*, *yea*, *verily*, *truly*, *surely*, *undoubtedly*, *doubtless*, *forsooth*, *certainly*; *no*, *nay*, *not*; *possibly*, *probably*, *perhaps*, *peradventure*, *perchance*.

All phrases or clauses which denote *place*, *time*, *cause*, or *manner*, are of the nature of adverbs.

COMPARISON OF ADVERBS.

Many adverbs, like adjectives, admit of comparison; as, *soon*, *sooner*, *soonest*; *bravely*, *more bravely*, *most bravely*.

NOTE. For *interrogative* and *conjunctive* adverbs, see Lesson XXIV.

What is an adverb? Into how many classes are adverbs divided? What questions do adverbs of place answer? Adverbs of time? Adverbs of cause? Adverbs of manner? What forms are of the nature of adverbs?

LESSON XXIII.

PREPOSITIONS.

NOTE. For the construction and use of the prepositions, see Lessons XXXVI and XXXVII.

A *preposition* is a word used to show the relation between a noun or pronoun and some preceding word; as, *upon*, *on*, *with*.

The following is a list of the principal prepositions in use:—

Aboard,	before,	for,	throughout
about,	behind,	from,	till,
above,	below,	in, into,	to,
according to,	beneath,	notwithstanding,	touching,
across,	beside or	of,	toward or
after,	besides,	off,	towards,
against,	between,	on,	under,
along,	betwixt,	out of,	underneath,
amid or	beyond,	over,	until,
amidst,	by,	past,	unto,
among or	concerning,	regarding,	up,
amongst,	down,	respecting,	upon,
around,	during,	round,	with,
at.	except,	since,	within,
athwart,	excepting,	through,	without.

INTERJECTIONS.

An *interjection* is a word used to express some emotion of the mind ; as, *oh!* *alas!*

Interjections are to be found chiefly in sentences expressive of joy, sorrow, or reverence.

What is a preposition? Repeat the list. What is an interjection?

LESSON XXIV.

INTERROGATIVES AND CONNECTIVES.

Interrogatives are words used in asking questions.

There are three kinds of interrogatives,—*pronouns*, *adjectives*, and *adverbs*.

Interrogative pronouns are used to inquire for some person or thing. They are *who*, *which*, and *what*.

Who is used to inquire for persons; *what*, as a pronoun, inquires for things; *which* refers to one of several persons or things; as, “*Who* wrote? *James*.” “*What* do you see? *A tree*.” “*Which* shall I take? *The largest one*.”

Interrogative adjectives are used to inquire for some description of a person or thing. They are *which*, *what*, joined to the noun to be described; *how many*, used to inquire for number; as, “*What*

book have you? A *blank* book." "Which path shall we follow? The *right-hand* path." "How many lessons has he learned? *Four* lessons."

Interrogative adverbs inquire for some circumstance of *place, time, cause, or manner*; as, "Where, when, why, how, did he go?"

NOTE. For a list of interrogative adverbs see Lesson XXXIX.

Connectives are words used to unite the elements of a sentence; as, "When a wise man is derided by a foolish, he will not be indignant."

Connectives are divided into two classes,—*coördinate* and *subordinate*.

Coördinate connectives are always *conjunctions*. They are used to unite either coördinate clauses or coördinate parts of a clause; as, "Life is short and art is long;" "Vice and misery are inseparable."

Coördinate conjunctions are of three kinds,—*copulative, adversative, and alternative*.

A *subordinate connective* is used to join a subordinate clause to some preceding word or clause; as, "I knew that he was deceitful."

Subordinate connectives are *conjunctions, relative pronouns, and conjunctive adverbs*.

Subordinate connectives are used to connect the three kinds of clauses,—*substantive, adjective, and adverbial*.

Substantive clauses are connected by *that* and the various interrogatives. (See Lesson XXXIX.)

Adverbial clauses are connected by *conjunctive adverbs*.

Adjective clauses are connected by *relative pronouns*.

What are interrogatives? How many classes of interrogatives are there? For what do interrogative pronouns inquire? Interrogative adjectives? Interrogative adverbs? What are connectives? How are they divided? What are coördinate connectives, and how are they used? How many kinds are there? How are subordinate connectives used? What are subordinate connectives? What kinds of clauses do subordinate connectives join? What connectives join substantive clauses? What adverbial? What adjective?

Miscellaneous Questions on the preceding Lessons.

How many classes of words are there when classed according to their formation? How many when classed according to their meaning and use? What is the difference between a primitive and a derivative word? A derivative and a compound word? Give five of each kind. What is the difference between a noun and a pronoun? Could we dispense with the pronoun? Why? What is the difference between an adjective and a noun? How may an adjective be known? What is the difference between a common and a proper noun? How does a collective noun differ from other common nouns? Give four collective nouns. Give the plural of *phenomenon*. Give the possessive case of *conscience*, *Achilles*. Write the possessive plural of *mouth*, *duty*, *winter*. What is the difference between a limiting and a qualifying adjective? Illustrate it. In comparing *two* objects, which degree of comparison should we use? What is the difference between a cardinal and an ordinal adjective? Compare *near*. What is the difference between a transitive and an intransitive verb? What is the difference between a passive and an active verb? What is the difference between the indicative and potential modes? The present tense and the present perfect? The passive and past participles? Write upon your slates the verb *sing*, in the second person, singular number, past perfect tense, potential mode.

PART II.

FORMATION OF SENTENCES.

PART II. embraces *syntax* and *prosody*. The former treats of the formation of sentences in general; the latter of the formation of sentences into verse.

LESSON XXV

DEFINITIONS.

A *sentence* is a thought expressed in words; as,
“Life is short.”

A sentence may contain one proposition or more.

A *proposition* is the combination of a subject and a predicate.

The component parts of a sentence are called its *elements*.

The elements of a sentence may be either *words*, *phrases*, or *clauses*.

Those elements which are essential to the formation of a sentence, are called *principal elements*,

those which are not thus essential, are called *subordinate elements*.

A *simple* sentence contains but one proposition; as, "The winds blow."

A *complex* sentence contains two or more *dissimilar* propositions; as, "When the winds blow, the trees bend."

A *compound* sentence contains two or more *similar* propositions; as, "The winds blow and the trees bend."

In the sentence, "When the winds blow, the trees bend," the first proposition is wholly dependent upon the other, hence they are dissimilar; in the next example, "The winds blow and the trees bend," the two propositions are independent of each other, hence they are similar.

What does Part II. embrace? What is a sentence? How many propositions may a sentence contain? What is a proposition? What is the subject of a proposition? What is the predicate of a proposition? What is a simple sentence? What is a complex sentence? What is a compound sentence?

LESSON XXVI.

OBJECTS, OR THINGS, AND THEIR ATTRIBUTES.

All persons, animals, places, and things, whether material or immaterial, are called *objects*.

NOTE. It is important that the learner should know that the *names* of all the objects which he can see, feel, taste, smell, hear, or think of, are nouns. He should be accustomed to name all the

objects he has seen during a walk, a ride, a sail, &c. Let him write upon the slate the following

EXERCISE.

Write the names of all the objects in this room; — of all the objects which you would probably see in a walk in spring, — in summer, — in autumn, — in winter; — in a sail down a river; — in a ride through a village, — a city, — in a visit to a museum, — a ship, — a store, — a factory.*

MODEL. *In this room, — fireplace, bricks, iron, boards, paper, glass, plaster, ceiling, stove, funnel, desks, books, boys, girls, hats, bonnets, &c. &c. &c.*

Tell what words are names of objects in the following sentences: —

“The soil of Scotland produces wheat, rye, barley, oats, hemp, flax, hay, and pasture. The country contains few or no animals not to be found among neighboring nations. Black cattle abound, especially upon the Highlands.”

All objects possess certain properties, called *attributes*.

Thus, we say, “The rose is *beautiful, sweet, fragrant, red, white.*” *Beautiful, sweet, fragrant, red, and white,* are attributes of the rose.

Attributes are of three kinds: —

(1.) Those which denote the *class* of objects; as, *beast, bird, tree;* —

(2.) Those which denote the *qualities* of objects; as, *good, old, sweet;* —

(3.) Those which denote the *actions* of objects; as, *run, crawl, fly.*

* Each pupil should be encouraged to write the names of as many objects as possible, and such exercises should be multiplied at the discretion of the teacher.

EXERCISE.*

Give the CLASS to which the following objects may belong:—

Oak, water, cherries, iron, swords, dogs, scholars, flutes, George, Hartford, Thames, France, priest, sparrow.

MODEL. OAK,—*a tree, a plant, a substance.*

Give some of the QUALITIES of the following objects:—

Lily, horse, gold, man, peach, tree, house, garden, water, sky, clouds, sun, apples, grapes, fishes, truth, education.

MODEL. LILY,—*white, delicate, fragrant, sweet.*

Write appropriate ACTIONS to the following objects:—

Birds, serpents, flies, sun, stars, insects, rain, children, armies, wasps, weeds, acorns, historians, fishes, worms.

MODEL. BIRDS,—*fly, sing, run, hop, eat, sleep, chirp, lay, set, hatch, brood, feed, protect.*

Write appropriate objects to the following miscellaneous attributes:—

Short, faithful, watchful, writes, sings, animal, king, wise, dubious, dances, opening, melts, lives, tree, vegetable, ominous, dutiful, pleasing, painful, punctilious, swims, crawl, degrading.

MODEL. SHORT,—*life, cane, face, shoes, hair, cloak, fingers, nails, journey, time.*

What does the word object embrace? Mention six objects! What do all objects possess? How many kinds of attributes are there? Give them in order.

* The pupil should be considered as having performed his task if he gives but one attribute to each object; yet he should be encouraged to give as many to each as possible.

LESSON XXVII.

ASSUMED AND PREDICATED ATTRIBUTES.

An attribute may be joined to an object in two ways:—

(1.) It may be *assumed* of it; as, *blue* sky, *rough* sea, *poisonous* reptiles;—

(2.) It may be *predicated* of it; as, “The sky is *blue*;” “The sea is *rough*;” “Reptiles are *poisonous*. ”

EXERCISE.

Assume the following qualities of gold,— porous, rough, yellow, precious, heavy;— of water,— pure, clear, turbid, salt, fresh;— of a horse, noble, spirited, active, brave, frantic, wild, white, lame, young, old, sick, dead, heavy, nimble.

MODEL. Porous gold, rough gold, yellow gold, precious gold, heavy gold.

Predicate the same qualities.

MODEL. Gold is *porous*. Gold is *rough*. Gold is *yellow*. Gold is *precious*. Gold is *heavy*.

Assume and then predicate the following QUALITIES of appropriate objects:—

Wise, great, amiable, fruitful, happy, idle, lazy, dull, fretful, pleasant, joyful, green, old, white, zealous, sagacious.

Assume and then predicate an appropriate ACTION of each of the following:—

Bees, whales, winds, waves, merchants, kings, trees, Samuel, Susan, scholars, water, rain, hens, minstrels, Peter, George.

MODEL. Buzzing bees. Bees are *buzzing*, or *buzz*.

Assume and then predicate the class of the following :—

Wasps, adder, thrush, Susan, piony, ash, birch, beer, coat, intemperance, the bible, the earth.

MODEL. The wasp, *an insect*.* The wasp *is an insect*.

Show which of the following expressions contain predicated, and which assumed attributes :—

Crawling serpents. The workmen are idle. John the carpenter. A white horse. The sun is setting. Ice melts. The moon shines. An old story. Wisdom is profitable. The jeweller is an artizan. Fading flowers. Snow is falling. Sour grapes. Fire burns. Singing birds. Serpents hissing. Trees falling. The journey is long.

Change the above examples,—predicate the assumed, and assume the predicated attributes.

When an attribute is assumed of its object, it is said to *modify* or *limit* it.

The assumed attribute is said to *modify* or *limit* because it restricts a general term to a particular class. Thus, "horses" means all the horses in the world; but "white horses" applies to those of one color, excluding *black, red, grey, &c.* horses.

When an attribute is predicated of an object, the two united form a proposition or simple sentence; as, "Snow is *white*;" "Trees *grow*;" "The earth is a *planet*."

In how many ways may an attribute be used? What is the meaning of *assumed*? (Ans. *to take for granted*; used in opposition to *predicate*.) What is the meaning of *predicate*? (Ans. *to affirm, declare, or say*; used when an attribute is *declared* to belong to its object. *Assume* is used when it is *taken for granted* that an attribute belongs to its object. Compare "Snow is *white*" and "*white* snow.") When is an attribute said to *modify* or limit its object? When does an attribute form with its object a proposition or simple sentence?

* In assuming the class or species of an object, we place the noun denoting the class in what is called *apposition* with the object.

SIMPLE SENTENCES.

LESSON XXXVIII

THE PROPOSITION OR SIMPLE SENTENCE.

A *proposition* is the combination of a subject and predicate, and is either a simple sentence or part of a complex or compound sentence.

The *subject* of a proposition is that of which something is affirmed; as, “*Birds fly;*” “*Horses run.*”

The *predicate* of a proposition is that which is affirmed of the subject; as, “*Trees grow;*” “*The winds are boisterous.*”

The predicate may be either affirmed or denied of the subject; but the denial of any thing is only affirming a negative; as, “*The fruit is not ripe.*”

The subject is commonly a noun or pronoun; as, “*George writes;*” “*He reads.*”

Any word, syllable, letter, phrase, or proposition, may be the subject, when used as a noun; as, “*Is is a verb;*” “*A is a vowel;*” “*To read is profitable;*” “*That the earth revolves on its axis, is clearly proved.*”

The predicate consists of two parts,—the verb or *copula*, and the *attribute*; as, “*Snow is white.*”

Is is the copula, and *white*, the attribute.

The *copula* is some modification (*is, are, was, &c.*) of the verb *to be*. Its office is, to assert an attribute of the thing to which it belongs.

It very often happens that the attribute and copula are united in one word.

EXAMPLES.

<i>Subject.</i>	<i>Predicate.</i>
Birds	sing, (are singing.)
George	comes.
Winds	blow.
Stars	shine.

NOTE. When the predicate contains the copula and the attribute in one word, it may always be resolved into these two parts; as, "Winds blow," "Winds are blowing."

When the two parts of the predicate are united in one word, that word is always a verb; as, "John writes."

Verbs which contain the copula and attribute are sometimes called *attributive verbs*, because the attribute is included in them.

The verb *to be* is sometimes an attributive verb; it then denotes existence, and is commonly preceded by *there*, and followed by its subject; as, "There are dolphins," "Dolphins exist."

Besides the verb *to be*, there are several others which do not complete the predicate, but take after them some word denoting a property of the subject; as, "Beggars are becoming numerous;" "He is called handsome." These verbs are sometimes called *copulative verbs*.

NOTE. The pupil has already seen that the simplest element of the language is a **LETTER**. Letters unite and form **SYLLABLES**. Syllables, either alone or united, form **PRIMITIVE WORDS**. Primitive words, by the addition of syllables or other words, become **DERIVATIVE OR COMPOUND WORDS**. Words unite and form **SENTENCES**. Sentences unite and form **PARAGRAPHS**. Paragraphs unite and form **SECTIONS, CHAPTERS**, and entire **DISCOURSES OR TREATISES**. The reverse of this process of combination is **ANALYSIS**. Each of these combinations can be resolved into the next lower, till we return to letters, which cannot be reduced.

In the combinations, the pupil has seen that a syllable consists either of the essential part alone, (a vowel,) or of the essential part with dependent parts, (consonants.) So, a word consists either of the essential part alone, (a radical,) or of the essential part with dependent parts, (prefixes and suffixes.) So, again, a sentence consists either of the essential parts, (the subject and predicate,

or of the essential parts with dependent parts, (the subordinate elements, or various added words.)

The *essential* parts of a sentence are the *subject* and *predicate*.

Sentences containing only the two essential parts are analyzed according to the following

MODELS FOR ANALYSIS.

Birds fly.

It is a proposition, because it contains a subject and predicate.

Birds . . . is the subject, because it is that of which the *action* "fly" is affirmed.

Fly . . . is the predicate, because it is the action affirmed of "birds."

Snow is white.

It is a proposition, because it contains a subject and predicate.

Snow . . . is the subject, because it is that of which the *quality* "white" is affirmed.

Is white, is the predicate, because it is that which is affirmed of "snow." "Is" is the verb or copula, and "white" is the attribute."

Gold is a metal.

It is a proposition, because it contains a subject and predicate.

Gold . . . is the subject, because it is that of which the *class* metal is affirmed.

Is a metal is the predicate, because it denotes that which is affirmed of "gold." "Is" is the verb, and "metal," the attribute.

EXERCISE.

Analyze the following propositions according to the models :—

Brutus determined. George was conscious. Stars shine. Writers differ. Trees are plants. Virtue ennobles. Wisdom directs. Cæsar conquered. Kings reign. Richard

was bold. Nero was cruel. Socrates was a philosopher. Night comes. Exercise strengthens. Serpents crawl. Winds blow. Eagles soar. Historians write. Boys play. Geography is interesting.

Predicate ACTION of the following subjects :—*

Horses, water, eagles, whales, quadrupeds, Columbus, Washington, father, mother, insects, wind, stars, children, fire, rain, leaves, grass, time, robbers, armies, moon, George, kings, wasps, acorns.

MODEL. Horses run. Water flows.

Predicate QUALITY of the following nouns :—

Life, peaches, ice, play, arithmetic, cloth, chairs, money, health, intemperance, history, darkness, morning, wisdom, fruit, clothing, ink, grass, sky, cherries, silver, fruit, soldiers, labor, wool, Mary.

MODEL. Life is short. Peaches are ripe.

Predicate the CLASS of the following subjects :—

Henry, lemons, ducks, lilies, city, dogs, trouts, lions, lead, sheep, marbles, knives, air, Peter, Stephen, David.

MODEL. Henry is a scholar. Lemons are fruit.

Let the pupil select the subjects and predicates of each sentence from a paragraph in his reading lesson, and tell whether action, quality, or species, is predicated.

Study LESSON XI., and then analyze the following propositions, and tell which subjects are PROPER, which are COMMON, and which are COLLECTIVE nouns :—

Alexander conquered. Zeno was a philosopher. Gray was a poet. Orders were issued. Snow falls. Temperance is a virtue. Waves dash. Darkness prevails. The

* The pupil should write these and similar examples upon a slate or paper, drawing a line under the illustrative word, and placing a period (.) at the end of each proposition. The first word in each sentence should commence with a capital. The exercises, after being corrected, may be copied into a writing book.

army marched. The school was dismissed. The council was divided. Wrestling is dangerous. Lying is wicked. Charles reads. Age overtakes. Poets sing. Winds blow

Write subjects to the following predicates :—

Proper Nouns. Is able; was prevented; believes; sings; dances; plays; is a merchant; is a teacher; is delighted; must come; is honorable; is faithful.

MODEL. *Samuel* is able.

Common Nouns. Run; is content; is laudable; is pleasant; is consumed; can live; write; are trees; are birds; are fishes; is desirable; is contemptible.

MODEL. *Horses* run.

Collective Nouns. Was divided; was convened; were pleased; was defeated; was dismissed.

MODEL. *The school* was divided.

What is a proposition? What is the subject? What is the predicate? What part of speech is the subject commonly? Of how many parts does the predicate consist? What is the copula? (*Copula* means *link*; it links or joins the attribute to the subject.) Are the attribute and copula ever united? What part of speech is the predicate then? What are the essential parts of a sentence?

LESSON XXIX.

THE SUBJECT MODIFIED BY INFLECTION.

The subject, besides representing that of which something is affirmed, may also indicate, by its form or by some change in its form, certain *accidental properties*.

These accidental properties of the noun or pronoun are *number*, *person*, *gender*, *case*, and are usually indicated by some change in the word itself, called *inflection*.

EXERCISE.

Study LESSON XIII., and then analyze the following examples, giving the number and class of each noun:—

Columbus sailed. Stars shine. James decreed. Cornwallis surrendered. Candia is an island. Socrates was poisoned. Lions roar. Grapes fall. Trees decay. Churches stand. Foxes are cunning. Weeds overrun. Benjamin was seen. Silver shines. Pencils are used. Washington was president. Kings are rulers. Eggs are broken. Vinegar is sour.

Write predicates to the plurals of the following nouns:—

Star, son, pipe, monarch, church, hero, fife, ox, cargo, ship, man, child, lily, wolf, wife, folio, muff, negro, sheep, mystery, vermin, lady, turkey, chief, hoof, mouse, goose, fly, box, day, duty, canto, grotto, stratum, axis.

MODEL. Stars *shine*. Sons *obey*.

Study LESSON XIV., and then analyze the following propositions, giving the gender of each subject:—

Lions crouch. Alfred reigned. Susan draws. Leave fall. Wine intoxicates. Planets shine. Clouds disappear. She-goats defend. The poetess sings. Cows graze. Cock sparrows chirp. Weeds grow. Sugar melts. Parents protect. Teachers instruct. The heroine was defeated.

Write subjects to the following predicates:—

Masculine Gender. Conquered; is wise; was detested; is a blacksmith; is discreet; are confiding; are discharged; is lame; are emigrating; is benevolent; is grateful; will devour; gnaw; will fight; complain; eat.

Feminine Gender. Is brooding; lowed; is playing, sings; is cheerful; rode; is a teacher; is practising; can dance; was injured; are anxious; are faithful; are chirping; are attentive.

Neuter Gender. Roll; grow; is solid, is deceptive
blows; shines; is falling; is a vegetable.

MODELS. Alexander conquered. *The hen* is brooding
Stones roll.

Study LESSON XV., and then analyze the following propositions, and give the person of each subject:—

I am well. You sit. We have come. He is delirious.
Thou art the man. Wisdom is profitable. Paul preached.
She is writing. It is true. They labor. Ye resist. Boys
play. Larks sing. Insects buzz.

Write subjects in the FIRST, SECOND, and THIRD persons respectively to each of the following predicates, making such changes in them as may be necessary:—

Is late; am exhausted; is plundering; is a pupil; might
be educated; is affable; art content; play; sing; lead; is
a mathematician; will be satisfied; can find; did defend;
does reply.

MODEL. We are late. Thou art late. He is late.

The case of the *subject* denotes its relation to the predicate, and is always *nominative*; hence the following rule:—

RULE I. A noun or pronoun used as the *subject* of a proposition must be in the nominative case.

NOTE 1. An *infinitive* or *substantive* clause may be the subject.

NOTE 2. In an abridged proposition,* the subject may remain unchanged, may be changed, or may be wholly dropped.

(1.) It remains unchanged, when it denotes a different person or thing from that of the principal clause, and (though logically it is still the subject) is said to be in the *nominative case absolute* with the participle of the predicate; as, "When SHAME is lost, all virtue is lost;" "SHAME being lost, all virtue is lost."

(2.) It is changed to the *possessive case*, when the abridged pred-

*A subordinate proposition is said to be abridged when one or both of its principal parts (subject or predicate) undergo a change which destroys the assertion, leaving it to be incorporated as a part of the principal clause; as, "The tempest which was raging with unwonted fury, drove them to the nearest shelter;" "The tempest raging with unwonted fury, &c."

icate, as a noun, becomes the object of its possession; as, "I was not aware that HE was going;" "I was not aware of HIS going."

(3.) It is changed to the *objective case*, when it follows a transitive verb and is followed by the infinitive of the predicate, or (when the infinitive is omitted) by the attribute of the predicate; as, "We supposed that HE was writing, was honest, or was the commander;" "We supposed HIM to be writing, to be honest, or to be the commander;" or, (omitting the infinitive,) "We supposed HIM writing, supposed HIM honest, supposed HIM the commander."

(4.) It is dropped, when it represents the subject or object of the principal clause, or, in general, when it represents the noun which the subordinate clause limits; as, "I wish that I might go;" "I wish to go;" "Reproof WHICH is given in public, hardens the heart;" "Reproof given in public hardens the heart."

MODELS FOR ANALYSIS AND PARSING.

Parsing consists in naming a part of speech, giving its modifications, relation, agreement, or dependence, and the rule for its construction. *Analysis* consists in pointing out the words or groups of words which constitute the elements of a sentence. Analysis should precede parsing.

George writes.

It is a simple sentence, because it contains but one proposition.

George . . is the subject, because it is that of which the action "writes" is affirmed.

Writes . . is the predicate, because it is the action affirmed of "George."

George . . is a proper noun, of the third person, singular number masculine gender, nominative case, and is the subject of the proposition, "George writes;" according to Rule I., "A noun or pronoun used as the subject of a proposition must be in the nominative case."

He is active.

It is a simple sentence, because it contains but one proposition.

He . . . is a personal pronoun, of the third person, singular number, masculine gender, nominative case, and is the subject of the proposition, "He is active;" according to Rule I.

EXERCISE.

Analyze the following propositions, and parse the subjects:—

I am prepared. Jesus wept. Milo lifted. Money tempted. Rain descended. Abraham was faithful. Job was patient. Comets appear. Planets revolve. Solomon prayed. They will quarrel. He is ruined. David was king. We must study. England was invaded. William conquered. Harold was defeated. Exercise strengthens

Stealing is base. Thou art seated. She is coming. It rains. It snows. It lightens. You can sing. He is detestable. Fishes swim.

Write subjects to the following predicates:—

Is a monster; are coming; is burning; neigh; ~~art~~ wise, were handled; is numbered; is a giant; are reptiles; are vegetables; is a beverage; is impossible; will be defeated; paints; draws; is a conductor; dances.

Write ten entire sentences of your own, having only a subject and predicate; select also the subjects and predicates from ten sentences in your Reading Lesson.

What may the subject indicate besides showing that of which something is affirmed? What are the accidental properties of the subject? How are they indicated? Give Rule I

LESSON XXX.

THE PREDICATE MODIFIED BY INFLECTION.

The predicate, besides representing what is affirmed, may also, like the subject, indicate by its form, or by some change in its form, certain *accidental properties*.

These accidental properties may belong either to the copula or attribute, or to both. When the two parts of the predicate are distinct, the attribute may be (1) a noun or pronoun, having the same properties as the subject, viz., *number, person, gender, case*; (2) an adjective, having *comparison* only; (3) a *participle*, in which case it is taken with the copula as one word, and considered as a form of the verb. The copula, or any verb may indicate *person, number, mode*, and *tense*.

When the attribute is a noun or pronoun, it is called the *predicate-nominative*, and is parsed by the following rule:—

RULE II. A noun or pronoun used with the copula to form the *predicate*, must be in the nominative case.

NOTE 1. The predicate-nominative always denotes the same person or thing as the subject, and must agree with it in *case*. When the predicate-nominative denotes a person, it usually agrees with the subject in *gender, number*, and *case*.

NOTE 2. By a peculiar idiom of the English language, the neuter pronoun *it*, as subject, may represent a noun or pronoun as predicate of any number, person, or gender; as, "It is I;" "It is they;" "It is James;" "It is she."

NOTE 3. This rule applies when copulative verbs are used; as, "He *is becoming* an artist."

NOTE 4. An infinitive or substantive clause may be used as the predicate-nominative; as, "The house *is to be searched*;" "My impression is, *that he will come*."

NOTE 5. In an abridged proposition, (see note at the bottom of p. 93,) the predicate-nominative may remain unchanged, may be changed, but can never be dropped, (see note 2, Rule I.)

(1.) It remains unchanged in the nominative, when the subject remains in the nominative; as, "As a YOUTH was their LEADER, what could they do?" "A YOUTH being their LEADER, what could they do?"

(2.) It remains unchanged in the nominative, relating logically (not grammatically) to the omitted subject, when in connection with the infinitive, or participle of the copula, it forms a verbal

noun, as "*That ONE should be a THIEF*, is strange;" "*Being a THIEF, or to be a THIEF*, is strange;" "*I was not aware that IT was HE*;" "*I was not aware of ITS being HE*."

(3.) It is changed to the objective when the subject is changed to the objective; or when the noun which the omitted subject would represent, (see Note 2, (4) Rule I.,) is in the objective; as, "*I believed that IT was HE*;" "*I believed IT to be HIM*." "*We found a plant WHICH is called the LILAC*;" "*We found a PLANT called the LILAC*."

MODELS FOR PARSING THE PREDICATE-NOMINATIVE.

Gold is a metal.

Metal is a common noun, of the third person, singular number, neuter gender, nominative case, and with "is" forms the predicate of the proposition, "Gold is a metal;" according to Rule II.: A noun or pronoun used with the copula, to form the predicate, must be in the nominative case.

He is called a hero.

Hero is a common noun, of the third person, singular number, masculine gender, nominative case, and, with "is called," forms the predicate of the proposition, "He is called a hero;" according to Rule II.: "A noun or pronoun, used with the copula to form the predicate, must be in the nominative case."

NOTE. Observe that this proposition has two attributes, *called* and *hero*, both of which, with *is*, constitute the predicate.

EXERCISE.

Analyze the following propositions, parsing the subjects and attributes:—

Demosthenes was an orator. I am he. It is I. It is Abraham. Horses are animals. He was considered a genius. She is a poetess. Madison was elected president. We are pupils. He is deemed a workman. They have become teachers. Borneo is an island. Algebra is a

science. Air is a fluid. Water is a liquid. Oxygen is a gas.

Write a subject and copula to each of the following nouns and pronouns taken as attributes:—

You, soldier, treatise, I, she, king, trees, vegetables, Andrew, Benjamin, animals, virtue, book, they, we, serpent, fish, insect, reptile, flower, plant, mineral, bay, harbor, planet, comet.

MODEL. *It is you. He was a soldier.*

When the attribute of the predicate is an adjective, it may be varied to indicate *comparison*; it is called the predicate-adjective and should be parsed by the following rule:—

RULE III. An adjective used with the copula to form the *predicate*, belongs to the subject.

NOTE 1. In other languages, the relation of the adjective to the subject is indicated by an agreement in *number, gender, and case*.

NOTE 2. Adjectives may thus belong to a substantive *phrase* or *clause*; as, “To steal is *base*;” “That the sun will be eclipsed is *evident*. ”

NOTE 3. Sometimes an adverb, or even a preposition, is joined to the copula, to form the predicate; as, “Thy glorious day is *o'er*;” “The boy is cheerful, but his brother is not *so*. ”

NOTE 5. In an abridged proposition, the predicate-adjective, when taken in connection with the infinitive or participle of the copula, seems to be used independently, yet it relates logically, like the predicate-nominative, (see Note 5, (2) Rule II.,) to the omitted subject; as, “*That ONE should be IDLE* is criminal;” “*To be IDLE* is criminal;” “He was guilty *of being INACTIVE*. ”

NOTE 6. It will be observed that, in abridged propositions three cases arise, which, grammatically, may be called independent. The first relates to the subject-nominative, (note 2, (1) Rule I.) — the second, to the predicate-nominative, (note 5, (1) Rule II.) — the third, to the predicate-adjective, (note 5, Rule III.) Yet in each, the logical relation is not changed.

MODELS FOR PARSING THE PREDICATE-ADJECTIVE.

He is benevolent.

Benevolent is an adjective, of the positive degree, (compared, *benevolent, more benevolent, most benevolent,*) and forms with "is" the predicate of the proposition, "He is benevolent." It belongs to "he," according to Rule III.: "An adjective used with the copula to form the predicate, belongs to the subject."

*Richard is older [than John.] **

Older . . . is an adjective, of the comparative degree, (compared *old, older, oldest,*) and forms with "is" the predicate of the proposition, "Richard is older." It belongs to the subject, according to Rule III.

Achilles was the bravest [of the Greeks.]

Bravest . . is an adjective, of the superlative degree, (compared *brave, braver, bravest,*) and forms with "was" the predicate of the proposition, "Achilles was," &c. It belongs to "Achilles," according to Rule III.

EXERCISE.

Study LESSON XVII., and then analyze the following examples, and parse the adjectives:—

Washington was wise. The country is free. The furniture is old. The child is weak. The wind is cold. The ice is thin. The water is deep. The soil is rich. The boards are rough. The general is brave. Edward is sick. Life is short. The streets are wide. The dog is faithful. George is industrious. The constable is active. Gold is precious. Diamonds are combustible. The sun is brilliant. The days are long.

Write predicate-adjectives to complete the following:—

Jonas is. The moon is. The ocean is. Truth is. He

* The words in the brackets should be omitted in analyzing, as the pupil is not prepared to explain them.

is. Washington was. Arnold was. Flowers are. I am.
Ice is. Roses are.

MODEL. Jonas is sick.

Write a subject and copula to each of the following adjectives used as attributes:—

Handsome, powerful, awful, warm, mild, gentle, able, sad, mournful, judicious, wise, discreet, unsuccessful, kind.

MODEL. The horses are handsome.

Write ten sentences of your own, using a predicate adjective.

When the attribute is a verb, it has the same accidental properties as the copula, and should be parsed by the following rule:—

RULE IV. The *verb* must agree with its subject in number and person.

NOTE 1. This rule applies to the copula when distinct from the attribute, or to the verb when both are united; as, "Thou *art* sleeping;" "Thou *sleepest*."

NOTE 2. Observe that the form *art* indicates the number and person, precisely in the same way as does the termination *est*.

NOTE 3. To this rule there properly is no exception. There is, however, an apparent exception in the case of collective nouns, which, in the singular number, may take a verb in the plural. If, in using such a noun, reference is had to the individuals forming the collection, the verb should always be plural; otherwise it should be singular.

NOTE 4. When the subject is compound apply Rule XII.

EXERCISE.

Study LESSON XVIII. and XIX., and then analyze the following sentences, giving the number and person of each verb:—

I write. He speaks. We say. They are riding. She is painting. You intimate. Thou thinkest. Gibbon narrated. Francis drives. Plants thrive. Trees grow. Friends advise. Teachers direct. It rains. They run. Stars shine.

Write each of these sentences, separating the copula from the attribute.

MODEL. I am writing.

Write subjects to the following verbs, taking care to use the right number and person:—

Sleeps, consent, chatters, walkest, are studying, command, preach, whistle, delays, abides, live, beseech, betray, consignest, disfigure, is contriving, was finishing, art spinning, mayst stop, does deliberate, wilt stay.

MODEL. Susan sleeps. We consent.

Correct the following sentences:—

James think. I readest. We speaks. You writes. Henry recitest. She complain. They viewedst. Thou is learning. We art ready. Some says. He lead. George art weeping.

MODEL. James thinks. *James think* is incorrect, because *think* does not agree with *James* in number, according to Rule IV.

Study LESSON XX. and then analyze the following propositions, giving the mode of each verb. Give also the number and person according to RULE IV.

The scales were turned. Charles was abandoned. The count was seized. We can dance. You may study. He is silent. Arthur was murdered. Stop. Stand still. Be careful. Be attentive. James was anxious. Truth is mighty. Wisdom exalts. Clouds overhang. Thunder roars. The lightning is vivid. Be wise. Awake. He may go. Study You must write. Be gone. Arnold was a traitor. Esau was hated. It may rain.

Write predicates to the following subjects:—

Indicative mode. Besiegers, Swedes, French, Bonaparte, procession, ladies, enemy, skill, emperor, he, it, government, conventions, war.

MODEL. The besiegers were repulsed.

Potential Mode. Fleet, column, congress, boys, sugar, joys, books, slates, ink, virtue, temperance, education, duty, mischief.

MODEL. The fleet *may be overtaken*. A column *must be erected*.

Convert the following infinitives into the imperative mode:—

To write; to study; to play; to sing; to read; to begin; to delay; to be active; to be true; to labor; to travel; to be acquitted; to indicate; to be happy; to leave; to wash to strike; to love.

MODEL. *Write, or Write thou.*

NOTE. The subject comes after the verb in the imperative mode, and is usually omitted or said to be understood.

Change the modes in your written examples,—the indicative to the potential, the potential to the indicative, and so on.

MODEL. The besiegers *were repulsed*. The besiegers *might be repulsed*. *Be ye repulsed*. *To be repulsed*.

Analyze the following propositions, and give the tense of each verb:—

The storm abates. James was disappointed. Reuben's painted. Nelson conquered. We have come. Desist. Tarry. They must have left. You had been left. I might have sailed. We cannot stop. I may have forgotten. The sun will be eclipsed. The moon will have set. Thou hadst been sitting.

Tell the voice of the above verbs.

Analyze the following sentences, and tell whether the verb is in the COMMON, EMPHATIC, or PROGRESSIVE form:—

The carriages move. The captain is commanding. Th leaves do wither. The fruit must fall. The waves hav been dashing. He will have stopped. He did stop. Thou dost speak.

If possible, write ten sentences, having the subject in each, a NOUN in the first or second person.

Change the forms of the verb in the exercise on p. 101.

MODEL. The scales were turned. The scales were turning. The scales turned. The scales did turn.

Take the list of infinitives on p. 102, write subjects to each, and let all the predicates (that admit of it) be changed to the passive voice.

Take the examples beginning, "The storm abates," p. 102, and write each in four different tenses.

MODEL. The storm abated. The storm will abate. The storm had abated. The storm will have abated.

MODELS FOR PARSING THE VERB.

The boy is diligent.

Is is an irregular intransitive verb, (principal parts, *be, was, been,*) in the indicative mode, present tense, third person, singular number, and agrees with its subject, "boy;" according to Rule IV.: "The verb must agree," &c.

James should have come.

Should have come is an irregular intransitive verb, in the potential mode, past perfect tense, third person, singular number, and agrees with its subject, "James;" according to Rule IV.

Depart.

Depart is a regular intransitive verb, in the imperative mode, present tense, second person, singular number, and agrees with *thou* understood; according to Rule IV.

Children should obey their parents.

Should obey . . . is a regular transitive verb, (principal parts *obey, obeyed, obeyed,*) active voice, potential mode, past tense, third person, plural number, and agrees with its subject, "children;" according to Rule IV.

NOTE. The relation of the transitive verb to its object will be fully explained in a subsequent Lesson.

He is deceived.

Is deceived is a regular passive verb, (transitive verb, passive voice,) (principal parts, *deceive, deceived, deceived,*) in the indicative mode, present tense, third person, singular number, and agrees with its subject, "he;" according to Rule IV.

NOTE. The uses of the *subjunctive, infinitive, and the participles,* will be explained hereafter.

EXERCISE.

Write subjects to the following verbs:—

Teach, instruct, learn, speak, say, utter, weep, lament, rejoice, bloom, laugh, move, bring, obey, try, bite, dance, fight, praise, censure, adorn, wound, punish, devour, croak, whistle, amuse, disturb, be committed.

Let the first twelve be in the indicative mode, two in each tense.

MODEL, FOR TWO TENSES.

<i>Pres.</i> { John teaches. James instructs.	<i>Past Tense,</i> { He learned. We spoke.
--	---

Let the next twelve be in the potential mode, three in each tense. (See model above.) — Write the remainder in the imperative mode. Give the infinitive and participles to ten of the above verbs.

Analyze and parse the following sentences, applying the four rules which are used in the construction of the subject and predicate. (See the preceding models for analyzing and parsing.)

John was a disciple. Jesus was betrayed. David is called the psalmist. You can learn. He will be writing. He had been defeated. Stop. Be active. Become a soldier. They should be industrious. He might have been

captured. George may have returned. Do be still. Hénry will have been planting. I spoke. Do stay.

NOTE. If the preceding exercises should not be sufficient to make the pupil perfectly familiar with the properties and construction of the subject and predicate, they should be multiplied at the discretion of the teacher. It is all important that these two elements of the sentence be perfectly understood before proceeding farther.

What may the predicate judge, besides showing what is affirmed? What is the first form of the attribute called? Give Rule II. What is the second form of the attribute called? Give Rule III. What is the third form of the attribute called? Give Rule IV.

LESSON XXXI.

CLASSES OF SENTENCES.

All sentences are either *declarative*, *interrogative*, *imperative*, or *exclamatory*.

A *declarative* sentence is used to state a fact or the possibility of a fact; as, "I saw George;" "You can see George."

It will be seen that the verb of a declarative sentence may be either in the indicative or potential mode.

An *interrogative* sentence is used to ask a question; as, "Whom did you see?" "Can I go?"

It will be seen here that the interrogative sentence may *inquire* for a fact or the possibility of a fact.

An *imperative* sentence is used to express a command, an entreaty, an exhortation, or a prayer as, "Let us go;" "May the truth prevail."

An *exclamatory* sentence is either a declarative, interrogative, or imperative sentence, so uttered as to express passion or emotion.

EXERCISE.

Tell which of the following sentences are DECLARATIVE, which INTERROGATIVE, which IMPERATIVE, and which are EXCLAMATORY.

The heat is oppressive. How warm it is! Will it rain? Listen. Does it thunder? The clouds are black. Who comes? Are you writing? Can we play? Be careful. Wait. Has he gone? Write. Come! Charge! The storm abates. The hills resound.

Convert the sentences in the exercise on p. 105 into interrogative sentences. Change (.) to (?)

MODEL. Was John a disciple?

Write five interrogative, five imperative, and five exclamatory sentences.

How many classes of sentences are there? Name them. What is a declarative sentence? What is an interrogative sentence? What is an imperative sentence? What is an exclamatory sentence? Give an example of each.

LESSON XXXII.

THE SUBJECT MODIFIED BY THE ADDITION OF
SINGLE WORDS.

NOTE. The pupil has seen that the subject and predicate may be modified by changing their *forms*. He is now to see that they may be still farther modified by additional words. These additions may be *single words, phrases, or clauses*.



The subject taken with the words which limit it, is called the *complex* or *logical* subject; when taken apart from these words, it is called the *grammatical* subject, or simply, the subject.

Thus, in "A large house was erected;" "A large house" is the complex subject, and "house" is the grammatical subject.

The subject may be restricted in its application,—

(1.) Without affecting any of its *properties*; as, "two men;" "these men;"—

(2.) By designating some *property*; as, "good men;"—

(3.) By *identifying* it; as, "Paul the apostle;" "Peter the hermit;"—

(4.) By representing it as an object *possessed*; as, *David's* harp.

The first two limitations are effected by *adjective words*; the second two, by *nouns* or *pronouns*.

Any word or group of words which limits the subject or the noun in any relation, answering the questions *what?* *what kind?* *how many?* *of what?* or *whose?* is called an *adjective element*; as, "Industrious men;" "Men of Industry;" "Men who are industrious."

All adjective words are divided into two classes,—*limiting* and *qualifying*. When used as modifiers, they are parsed by the following rule.—

RULE. V. An adjective or participle used as a *modifier*, belongs to the noun or pronoun which it limits.

MODELS FOR ANALYZING AND PARSING.

Tall oaks bend.

It is a simple sentence because it contains but one proposition.

Oaks is the subject, because it is that of which the action "bend" is affirmed.

Bend is the predicate, because it is the action affirmed of "oaks."

Oaks (the subject) is limited by "tall," which shows *what kind* of oaks, and is an *adjective* element.

Tall oaks is the complex subject.

Tall is a qualifying adjective, of the positive degree, (compared *tall, taller, tallest,*) and is used as a modifier of the subject; according to Rule V., "An adjective or participle used as a modifier, belongs to the noun or pronoun which it limits."

This truth is clear.

NOTE. Analyze as in the previous example.

This is a limiting adjective, (not compared,) and is a modifier of the subject; according to Rule V.

NOTE. *Clear* is also an adjective, but it is used as the predicate of the proposition, (not a modifier,) and is parsed by Rule III

Bengal tigers are ferocious.

Bengal is a limiting adjective, denoting place, (not compared,) and is used as a modifier of the subject, according to Rule V.

NOTE 1. Adjectives which imply number, should agree in number with the nouns to which they belong; as, "*all men*;" "*several men*." When two numerals precede a noun, one singular and the other plural, the plural should be placed next to the noun; as, "*the first two lines*," not "*the two first lines*."

NOTE 2. When objects are contrasted, *that* refers to the first and *this* to the last mentioned; as, "Wealth and poverty are both temptations; *that* tends to excite pride, *this* discontentment."

NOTE 3. In the use of the indefinite article, *a* should be placed before the sound of a consonant, and *an* before that of a vowel as, "*a house*;" "*a [y] union*;" "*an inch*;" "*an hour*."

NOTE 4. When the article, or any other merely limiting word, stands before two connected adjectives, (1,) it should be repeated, if they belong to different objects; as, "a white and a red flag," i. e., two flags; (2,) it should be used but once, if they belong to the same object; as, "this tall and beautiful tree," i. e., one tree.

NOTE 5. By a peculiar idiom, *the* is used with comparatives, to denote proportionate equality; as, "The more I see it, *the* better I like it."

NOTE 6. The adjective is often used as a noun, the noun to which it belongs being understood; as, "*The good* are respected." On the other hand the noun is often used as an adjective; as, "*Gold beads.*"

NOTE 7. One adjective often limits the complex idea expressed by another adjective and a noun; as, "Two *old horses.*"

NOTE 8. The predicate adjective or participle, following *copulative* verbs, generally indicates the manner of the action, while, at the same time, it denotes some property of the subject; as, "The boy was made *sick.*"

NOTE 9. When two objects or sets of objects are compared, the comparative degree is generally used; as, "George is *taller* than William, or is the *taller* of the two;" "My brother and sister are older than his brother and sister."

NOTE 10. When more than two objects are compared, the superlative degree is used; as, "Achilles was the bravest of the Greeks."

EXERCISE.

Analyze the following examples, pointing out and parsing the limiting and the qualifying adjectives:—

These books are torn. That man is lame. Industrious men are rewarded. Each soldier was paid. Three bears were killed. Many fishes were caught. Old boards were burnt. This story was told. Any price will be paid. Can three horses be purchased? Do all birds sing? What monster is that? Early rising is recommended. Limiting adjectives can be distinguished. The rising sun is beautiful.

Apply limiting adjectives to the subjects of the following sentences :—

Horse neighs. Arts are improved. Citizens complain. Business is completed. Soldier stood. Dog ran. Cloud is black. Hen is dead. Duck swam. Storm did abate. Wind blew. Rain fell. Men were captured. Walk was taken. Book is useful. Houses are built. Ride is pleasant.

MODEL. *That horse neighs.*

Write twelve more sentences, applying limiting adjectives to the subjects.

Apply qualifying adjectives to the subjects of the following propositions :—

Maxim is given. Scriptures teach. Men desire. Reproof hardens. Habits should be avoided. Counsels were given. Character shines. Cottage stood.

Write predicates to the following subjects, limiting each subject by some qualifying adjective or participle :—

Lady, paper, lord, cousin, light, darkness, ambassador, army, commissioner, tiger, traitor, tutor, pupil, window, cellar, chamber, chancellor, monk, friar, countess.

MODEL. *The good lady assisted.*

Write subjects to the following predicates, and let each be limited by a limiting and one or more qualifying adjectives :—

Was prepared ; was made ; was served up ; had scattered ; is desirable ; were tamed ; is delightful ; had arrived ; can jump ; might have slept ; did eat ; could fight ; was avoided ; could have been stopped ; may be upset ; was emptied ; sailed ; was prostrated.

MODEL. *That sumptuous feast was prepared.*

The subject may be limited by a noun or pronoun used to explain it by designating its *office*, *rank*, *character*, or otherwise *identifying it*; as, "Peter the hermit preached the first crusade."

The limiting noun or pronoun must represent the same person or thing as the limited noun.

A noun or pronoun thus used is said to be in apposition with the noun which it limits, and is to be parsed by the following rule :—

RULE VI. A noun or pronoun used to *identify* another noun or pronoun, is put by apposition in the same case ; as, “His brother *George* was absent.”

NOTE 1. When the limiting noun denotes a person, it generally agrees with the limited, in *number, gender, and case*.

NOTE 2. The noun in apposition *assumes* the *class, office, rank, or identity* of another noun, while the predicate nominative *affirms* it ; as, “*George* the *king* ;” “*George* was the *king*.”

NOTE 3. A noun in the plural, may be represented, not by one, but by two or more nouns which together are equivalent to it ; as, “The victims, a *brother* and a *sister*.” The reverse of this rule is equally true ; as, “Intemperance, oppression, and fraud, *vices* of the age.”

NOTE 4. Two or more proper names, or a title and a proper name, applied to one person, though in apposition, should be taken as one complex noun ; as, “*George Washington* ;” “*General Gates*.”

MODEL FOR ANALYZING AND PARSING.

King Charles was beheaded.

It is a simple sentence, because it contains but one proposition.

King is the subject.*

Was beheaded is the predicate.

King is limited by “Charles,” and is an adjective element, used to identify the “king.” “King Charles” is the complex subject.

Charles is a proper noun, of the third person, singular number, nominative case, and is used to identify “king ;” according to Rule VI. “A noun or pronoun,” &c.

* The definitions may be omitted when the pupil becomes familiar with them.

EXERCISE.

Analyze the following sentences, parsing the nouns in apposition :—

The patriarch Abraham was accounted faithful. Paul, the apostle, was a martyr. The emperor Nero was a cruel tyrant. Milton, the poet, was blind. The disciple John was beloved. The martyr Stephen was stoned. The great navigator Columbus was maltreated. Henry, the scholar, was crowned king.

Write twelve sentences limiting the subject by a noun in apposition.

The subject may be limited by a noun or pronoun which represents it as an object of possession ; as, "*Henry's book fell.*"

A noun or pronoun thus used to limit the subject is parsed by the following rule :—

RULE VII. A noun or pronoun used to limit another noun by denoting *possession*, must be in the possessive case ; as, "*Stephen's courage failed.*"

NOTE 1. When two or more nouns in the possessive case are connected,—1st, if the object possessed belongs to the two *jointly*, the sign of possession should be applied to the last only ; as, "*Little and Brown's store* ;"—but, 2d, if different objects, having the same name, are possessed, the sign of possession ('s) should belong to them separately ; as, "*Greenleaf's and Emerson's Arithmetic.*"

NOTE 2. Two or more nouns in apposition, whether used as one complex noun or otherwise, have the sign of possession annexed to the last only ; as, "*General Washington's command* ;" "*John the Baptist's head.*"

NOTE 3. When the noun in the possessive is limited by a preposition and its object, the sign of possession follows the whole expression ; as, "*The duke of Wellington's sword.*"

MODEL FOR ANALYSIS AND PARSING.

His hand trembles.

It is a simple sentence, because it contains but one proposition.

Hand . . . is the subject. (Why ?)

Trembles is the predicate. (Why ?)

His hand is the complex subject. (Why ?)

Hand . . . is limited by "his," which denotes *whose han*, and is an adjective element.

His . . . is a personal pronoun, third person, singular number, possessive case, and is the modifier of "hand;" according to Rule VII.

EXERCISE.

Analyze the following sentences, parsing the modifier of the subject:—

The rook's nest was destroyed. The bird's beak was broken. Our lesson is easy. My task is completed. William's farm is productive. Rufus's garden is watered.

Write twelve sentences limiting the subject by a noun or pronoun in the possessive case.

Analyze and parse the following miscellaneous examples:—

Three birds flew. The man awoke. Good food was provided. Every soldier escaped. All men are mortal. Twenty days have passed. Is your lesson easy? Wisdom's ways are pleasant. The king's council might have been able. Was John the Baptist beheaded? The planet Venus has risen. Sirius, the dog-star, is visible. Boston, the capital, is populous. The goddess Discord was offended. Beautiful plants were sold. Old iron is wanted. Becket, the archbishop, was considered a martyr.

Write twenty sentences illustrating the four kinds of modifiers.

In how many ways may the subject (or any noun) be restricted in its application? What is the complex or logical subject? What is the grammatical subject? What is an adjective element? Give the rule for parsing the adjective and participle. In what way may the subject be limited so as to identify it? What is the meaning of *identify*? In the expression "Arnold, the *traitor*," how does *traitor* identify Arnold? Why is a *noun* thus used called an *adjective* element? (*Ans.* Because it performs an office similar to that of the adjective; it describes or explains a noun.) Give Rule VI. In what other way may a noun be modified by another noun? Give Rule VII.

LESSON XXXIII.

THE PREDICATE LIMITED BY THE ADDITION OF SINGLE WORDS.

See Note at the beginning of Lesson XXXII.

The predicate, when taken in connection with the words which limit it, is called the *complex* or *logical predicate*; when taken apart from these words, is called the *grammatical predicate*, or simply the *predicate*; as, "Horses *run*;" "Horses *run swiftly*."

The Objective Element. Any word or group of words used to complete the meaning of a transitive verb or its participles, and answering the question, *What?* or *Whom?* is called the *objective element*; as, George desired (what) a *book*, — a *knife*, — a *sled*, — to *write*, — to *play*, — that *he might see his friend*.

The object becomes the subject when the verb assumes the passive form.

The noun or pronoun used as the object has the same modifications of number, gender, and person, as the subject.

The following rule should be applied in parsing the object :—

RULE VIII. A noun or pronoun used as the object of a transitive verb or its participles, must be in the objective case ; as, “ We paid him.”

NOTE 1. The following verbs *make, appoint, elect, create, constitute, render, name, style, call, esteem, think, consider, regard, reckon*, and some others, not only take after them a direct object, but predicate of it another object ; as, “ They called his name John.”

NOTE 2. As these verbs, unlike other transitive verbs, perform the additional office of copula, they are sometimes called *copulative verbs*. This latter office is retained when they are changed to the passive voice ; the first object becomes the *subject-nominative*, and the second, the *predicate-nominative* ; as, His name was called John.

NOTE 3. The following verbs, *buy, sell, play, sing, find, get, lend, draw, send, make, pass, write, pour, give, teach, leave, bring, tell, do, present, throw, carry, ask, show, order, promise, refuse, deny, provide* and some others, take after them, besides a *direct object*, an *indirect object*, showing *to* or *from* whom the action tends ; as, “ Give me a book.”

NOTE 4. The indirect object is generally said to be governed by a preposition understood ; the preposition is always expressed when the direct object is placed first ; as, Give a book *to me*.

NOTE 5. When any of the above verbs assume the passive form, the direct object generally, (though not always,) becomes the subject ; as, “ A book was given me.” The indirect object sometimes becomes the subject ; as, “ He was asked his *opinion* ; ” “ I was taught *Grammar*.” *Opinion* and *Grammar* are in the objective case after a passive verb.

NOTE 6. Instead of a single word, an infinitive or substantive clause may become one of the objects ; as, “ I told him *to go* ; ” “ He informed me that the boat had sailed.”

MODEL FOR ANALYZING AND PARSING.

Cæsar defeated Pompey.

It is a simple sentence, because it contains but one proposition.

Cæsar is the subject.

Defeated is the predicate.

Defeated is limited by "Pompey," which shows whom Cæsar defeated, and is an objective element.

Defeated Pompey is the complex predicate.

Pompey is a proper noun, of the third person, singular number, masculine gender, objective case, and is the object of "defeated;" according to Rule VIII.

EXERCISE.

Analyze the following sentences, and parse the object:—

Brutus killed Cæsar. Heat overcomes me. Did the dog pursue a fox? The lion ate a sheep. He views the stars. We built a house. The ink soils the carpet. Josephus wrote a history. Did William conquer England? Alfred defeated the Danes. Bring a book. Repeat the lesson. Might he have been leading the army?

Write subjects and objects to the following verbs:—

Lead, praise, restrain, know, fear, see, love, admonish, bring, correct, frighten, pursue, break, torment, perplex, annoy, betray, sing, open, displace, equip, defend, punish, leave, desire.

Change the verbs of your written sentences from the active to the passive form.

MODEL. *Abraham led Isaac. Isaac was led by Abraham.*

The Adverbial Element. Any word or group of words used to limit the meaning of a verb, adjective, or adverb, and answering the questions, *Where?* *When?* *Why?* or *How?* is called an *adverbial element*, as, "The flower blossomed *early*."

Adverbs are divided into four general classes, — *adverbs of place, adverbs of time, adverbs of cause, adverbs of manner*. They are parsed by the following Rule:—

RULE IX. Adverbs are used to limit verbs, participles, adjectives, and other adverbs.

NOTE 1. Two negatives occurring in the same sentence render it affirmative ; as, “*Nor did they not perceive their evil plight*” = “*They did perceive their evil plight*.” Two negatives are often elegantly used to express an affirmation, one being the prefix of a derivative word ; as, “*Nor was he unsuccessful* ;” “*Mine is not an unwelcome task*.”

NOTE 2. Adverbs are sometimes used to limit the meaning of a preposition ; as, “*He held his hand exactly over the place*.”

NOTE 3. Adverbs sometimes modify, not any one word, but a phrase or an entire sentence ; as, “*We were absent almost a year* ;” “*Verily, verily, I say unto you*.”

NOTE 4. Any word, phrase, or clause, used to show the *place, time, cause, or manner*, of an action is of the nature of an adverb.

MODELS FOR ANALYZING AND PARSING.

Light moves rapidly.

It is a simple sentence, because it contains but one proposition.

Light is the subject, because it is that of which the action “moves” is affirmed.

Moves is the predicate, because it is the action affirmed of light.

Moves rapidly is the complex predicate, because it is the grammatical predicate, with all its limitations.

Moves is limited by “rapidly,” which denotes how light moves, and is an adverbial element.

Rapidly is an adverb of manner, of the positive degree, (compared, *rapidly, more rapidly, most rapidly,*) and limits “moves ;” according to Rule IX.: “Adverbs limit,” &c.

EXERCISE.

Analyze the following sentences, and parse the adverbs:—
Human prudence should be rightly understood. The

stage started early. Does Mary write beautifully? The wind blows fiercely. We easily forget our own misdeeds. We cannot view the sun steadily. One can easily imagine himself a prince. The sun shines brightly. The water flows yonder. Perhaps he will do it. He cannot do it. Write carefully. Study attentively. Why do you talk? Where are the books? When will they leave? Who comes there? How did the old man bring it? What have you now found? How strange it is! Begone instantly!

Write fifteen sentences, and limit each predicate by an adverb.

MODEL FOR ALL THE ELEMENTS UNITED.

Constant boasting always betrays incapacity.

It is a simple sentence, because it contains but one proposition.

Boasting is the subject. (Why?)

Betrays is the predicate. (Why?)

The subject is limited by "constant," an adjective element, denoting a continued habit.

Constant boasting is the complex subject. (Why?)

Betrays is limited, first, by "incapacity," an objective element, denoting what is betrayed.

Betrays is further modified by "always," an adverbial element, denoting time absolute.

Always betrays incapacity, is the complex predicate.

Analyze the following examples, and parse each word. Show which have five elements, and which have not.

The pupil performed the task correctly. The ambitious often deceive themselves. The slothful seldom respect themselves. No man should return an injury. Idleness begets poverty. Animals run. Some animals run swiftly

The birds devour the cherries greedily. Virtue is often neglected. Socrates the philosopher was condemned.

Write five sentences containing five elements ; -- five, containing four ; -- five, containing three ; -- and five others, containing only two.

What is the complex logical predicate ? What is the grammatical predicate ? What is the objective element ? What questions does it answer with a transitive verb ? Give the Rule for the object. What is an adverbial element ? What may it answer ? Give the Rule for the adverb.

LESSON XXXIV.

INTERJECTIONS, AND THE CASE INDEPENDENT.

There are certain words used simply to express the emotions of the speaker, which do not form any part of a sentence ; as, *oh ! alas ! ah !* such words are called *Interjections*, because they are *thrown in* between the parts of a sentence.

Interjections have no dependence upon other words, and therefore need no further illustration.

A noun or pronoun used to denote the person or thing addressed, is said to be in the *nominative case independent*.

The interjection and the nominative case independent may be parsed by the following Rule :—

RULE X. The nominative case independent, and the interjection, have no grammatical relation to the other parts of the sentence.

NOTE 1. A noun may be in the nominative case independent, (1,) by *direct address* ; as, “*Friends, awake !*” — (2,) by *exclamation* ; as, “*O solitude !*” — (3,) by *pleonasm* ; as, “*And Harry’s flesh, it fell away.*”

NOTE 2. When a noun is used absolutely with a participle, the two are equivalent to a subordinate clause, and are, therefore, grammatically related to the principal clause. See Note 2, (1,) Rule I.

MODEL FOR ANALYSIS AND PARSING.

Oh ! father, I want that lily.

I . . . is the subject. (Why?)

Want . is the predicate. (Why?)

Want . is limited by "that lily," denoting *what* is wanted.

Oh ! . is an interjection, having no dependence upon the other parts of the sentence ; according to Rule X.

Father is a common noun, of the second person, singular number, masculine gender, and nominative case independent ; according to Rule X.

EXERCISE.

Analyze and parse the following sentences :—

"Oh ! Speak." "His reason, alas ! has left him." "Ah ! pity the helpless." "Arise, O Lord ; O God, lift up thine hand."

Write ten sentences, each containing a nominative case independent, an interjection, or both. Analyze and parse according to the model.

What are interjections ? What does the nominative case independent denote ? Give Rule X.

LESSON XXXV.

COMPLEX AND COMPOUND ELEMENTS.

It has been seen that a sentence may contain five distinct elements,—*the subject, the predicate, the adjective element, the objective element, and the adverbial element.*

The first two are called *principal elements* because no sentence can be formed without them.

The others are called *subordinate elements*, because they are always directly or indirectly dependent on the other two.

Whenever two elements are united, one of which is subordinate to the other, and limits its meaning, the two united form a *complex element*.

Thus, "Animals run" contains only the two principal elements ; but in the sentence, "Large animals run," the subordinate element "large" renders the subject complex. So, in the sentence, "Large run slowly," both the subject and predicate are complex. In the same manner, each subordinate element may become complex.

Whenever two elements are united, which in no way limit each other, they form a *compound element* ; as "*John and James attended school.*"

Either of the five elements of a sentence, may become complex, compound, or both ; as, "*Sarah writes neatly ;*" "*Sarah writes and paints ;*" "*Sarah writes neatly and paints correctly.*"

The parts of a compound element are said to be *coördinate*, because they hold the same rank ; that part of a complex element which limits the other and depends upon it, is said to be *subordinate* to it, because it takes an inferior rank in the sentence.

The parts of a compound element or a compound sentence are said to be *similar*, since they have the same rank ; the parts of a complex element, or a complex sentence, are said to be *dissimilar*, since they do not have the same rank.

The parts of a compound element are joined to each other by a connective ; as, "He labored faithfully *and* successfully."

The parts of a complex element are joined to each other sometimes with, and sometimes without a connective ; as, "He purchased a *valuable farm* ;" "He purchased a *farm WHICH was valuable*."

Those connectives which unite the parts of a compound element are called *coördinate* ; those which unite the parts of a complex element are called *subordinate*.

Coördinate connectives are always conjunctions, and are parsed by the following Rule :—

RULE XI. *Coördinate* conjunctions are used to connect similar elements.

NOTE 1. These conjunctions are called coördinate, because the *words, phrases, or clauses* which they connect are coördinate.

NOTE 2. When the coördinate parts exceed two, the conjunction is usually placed between the last two only; as, "The flood swept away *trees, fences, houses, and barns*."

MODELS FOR ANALYZING AND PARSING COMPOUND ELEMENTS.

Socrates and Plato were distinguished philosophers.

It is a sentence having a compound subject.* *Socrates and Plato* form the compound subject, because they are united by "and," and have a common predicate, "were philosophers."

*A sentence having but one of its elements compound, is not properly a simple sentence, nor is it strictly a compound sentence. It may, not improperly, be called a *partial* compound, since one of its parts is compound. All such sentences may be converted into complete compounds.

The subject . is not limited.

The predicate is limited by "distinguished," an adjective element of the first class, used to describe "philosophers."

And is a coördinate conjunction, and connects the two simple subjects; according to Rule XI.

You may buy books or slates.

It is a sentence having a compound objective element.

You is the subject.

May buy . . . is the predicate.

You is not limited.

May buy . . . is limited by "books or slates," a compound objective element, of the first class, showing *what* may be bought.

Or is a coördinate conjunction, (alternative,) showing that a choice is offered between "books" and "slates," which are connected by it; according to Rule XI.

NOTE. With the materials already explained, a sentence may be considerably extended. Let the pupil attend carefully to the following

EXERCISE.

Analyze the following sentences, and point out the complex elements: —

His oldest brother's son was sick. Alfred the Great subdued the Danish king. Peter the hermit preached the first crusade. William the Conqueror defeated Harold, the Saxon king. Excess produces premature old age. Touch it very lightly. Avarice often produces contrary effects. Interest speaks all languages. It acts all parts. Guard well your own heart. The shade protected the weary pilgrim. Labor disgraces no man. Joseph, Jacob's favorite son, was sold. Moses received the ten commandments.

Write ten sentences of your own, making either element complex.

Study LESSON XXIV., and then analyze the following sentences, parse the conjunctions and the verbs, and point out the compound elements :—

The sun and moon stood still. Abraham, Isaac, and Jacob, were Jewish patriarchs. Exercise ferments the humors, throws off redundancies, and assists nature. The plain and simple style recommends and heightens the sublime. Education expands and elevates the mind. Religion refines and purifies the affections. Many very worthy and sensible people have certain odd tricks.

As a compound element may have a *verb* or *pronoun* agreeing with it, the following rule should be observed :—

RULE XII. When a verb or pronoun relates to two or more nouns connected by a coördinate conjunction,—

(1.) If it agrees with them taken *conjointly*, it must be in the *plural number* ;—

(2.) But, if it agrees with them taken *separately*, it must be of the same number as that which stands next to it ;—

(3.) If it agrees with one, and *not* the other, it must be of the same number as that with which it agrees.

EXAMPLES.

- Charles and his sister *were* absent.
 Charles or his sister *was* absent.
- Neither Charles nor his sister *was* absent.
 Charles or his sisters *were* absent.
 Either his sisters or Charles himself *was* absent.
- Not Charles, but his sister *was* absent.
 Charles, and not his sister, *was* absent.
- Charles, as well as his sister, *was* absent.
 Not Charles, but his sisters *were* absent.
 Charles, and not his sisters, *was* absent.

EXERCISE.

Write predicates to the following compound subjects:—
 Washington and Lafayette; sun and moon; my brother and I; Samuel or Peter; silver or gold; neither one nor the other; not Adam, but Eve; snow, as well as rain; William, or his sons; Cain, and not Abel; Jacob, or his children; the members, or the president; not the children, but the father; George, and Joseph also; every man and woman; each boy and girl.

MODEL. Washington and Lafayette were distinguished generals.

Write compound predicates to the following subjects:—

Promises, murderer, emperor, picture, Bible, boys, children, grammar, Arnold, Cicero, Mahomet, coal, religion, virtue, diligence, behavior, kindness.

MODEL. Promises are often made and broken.

Write fifteen sentences of your own, limiting the subjects of the first five by a compound adjective element,—the predicates of the next five by a compound objective element,—and the predicates of the last five by a compound adverbial element.

MODELS. A large and beautiful horse was killed. The flood swept away trees, fences, houses, and barns. Some men sin frequently, deliberately, and presumptuously.

Write ten sentences, making any two elements in each compound.

MODEL. George and David study grammar and arithmetic.

Analyze and parse the following miscellaneous examples:—

We have learned our lessons. Joseph was sold. You might have crossed the stream. He will sell some figs. She should have been studying her lesson. The earl is our guest. Be sober. Live contentedly. Break not your promise. Be thou a scholar. Be firm. Do be quiet.

The soldiers must have been drilled. The ship ploughs the sea. The emperor Antoninus wrote an excellent book. Edward the Confessor abused his mother. Queen Christina resigned her crown. Edward the Black Prince wore black armor. I am, dear sir, your affectionate friend. My son, give me thy heart. The earth and the moon are planets. The creation demonstrates God's power and wisdom. Anarchy and confusion, poverty and distress, follow a civil war. Avoid arrogance and servility.

The verdant lawn, the shady grove, the variegated landscape, the boundless ocean, and the starry firmament, are beautiful and magnificent objects. True religion gives our behavior a native and unaffected ease. Plain, honest truth wants no artificial coloring. Wise and good men are frequently unsuccessful. True worth is modest and retiring. Ulysses was a wise, eloquent, cautious and intrepid hero. Good nature mends and beautifies all objects. The liberal arts soften and harmonize the temper. A philosopher should examine every thing coolly, impartially, accurately, and rationally. I shall go myself, or send some one. He is not sick, but discouraged. She sings, as well as plays. He has caught a pike or a perch. O, how cold it is! His fate, alas! was deplorable. Coming events cast their shadows before.

How many elements may a sentence contain? Which are principal? Which subordinate? How is a complex element formed? How is a compound element formed? What elements may be complex or compound? How are the parts of a compound element joined? How are the parts of a complex element joined? What are coördinate connectives? Give the rule for their use.

LESSON XXXVI.

THE SUBJECT MODIFIED BY THE ADDITION
OF PHRASES.

NOTE. In the previous additions to the subject or predicate, a single word is made to show *what kind*, *how many*, *whose*, *what*, *whom*, *where*, *when*, *why*, *how*, &c. But in this and the succeeding lesson a class of additions is considered, in which an *infinitive*, or a *preposition* and its *object*, show *what kind*, &c. These additions are called *phrases*. They perform the same office as, and may often be changed to single words; as, "A man *of industry* will prosper" = * "An *industrious* man will prosper." These phrases, called elements of the second class, may be used as *substantives*, *adjectives*, or *adverbs*.

The *preposition* is a connective used to join a noun or pronoun to the word or phrase on which it depends. The noun or pronoun is called the *object* of the preposition.

The use of the preposition may be expressed by the following rule:—

RULE XIII. A preposition is used to show the relation of its object to the preceding word on which the object depends; as, "George *went into* the *garden*."

The following is the rule for the object:—

RULE XIV. A noun or pronoun used to complete the relation of a preposition, must be in the objective case; as, "They gathered around *him*."

* In the subsequent parts of this work, it will often be necessary to represent equivalent expressions. For this purpose the sign of equality (=) will be used.

NOTE 1. The object of the preposition may be either a *word*, *phrase*, or *clause*; as, "He came in *haste*;" "This is a book for *you to read*;" "Much depends upon *who the commissioners are*."

NOTE 2. The objective is used without a preposition, after *like*, *nigh*, *near*, and *worth*.

NOTE 3. Before nouns denoting *time*, *measure*, *distance*, and *direction*, the preposition is usually understood; as, "We were absent *five years*;" "The wall was *a foot thick*."

The infinitive is a peculiar form, participating the properties of a noun and verb.

When used to modify other words, it should be parsed by the following rule:—

RULE XV. The infinitive depends upon the word which it limits; as, "We *went to see you*."

NOTE 1. The *to* of the infinitive is omitted after the active voice of *bid*, *dare*, *let*, *make*, *hear*, *need*, *feel*, *see*; as, "I heard him say it."

NOTE 2. This rule applies to the infinitive only when it is a subordinate element; when it is a principal element, apply either Rule I. or Rule II.

NOTE 3. The infinitive is often used after *so*, *as*, *too*, and *than*.

Of is the principal preposition used in the adjective phrase.

Other prepositions are sometimes used; as, *at*, *in*, *on*, &c.

MODELS FOR ANALYZING AND PARSING.

NOTE. The pupil should bear in mind that, instead of a single adjective, as in Lesson XXXIII., a PHRASE, consisting of an *infinitive*, or a *preposition* and its *object* is here used to limit the subject; as, "The dew *of the morning* has passed away." It is called the *adjective phrase* or *adjective element of the second class*.

The brother of Richard I. usurped the throne.

It is a simple sentence, because it contains but one proposition.

Brother is the subject.

Usurped is the predicate.

The subject, *brother*, is limited by the phrase "of Richard" an adjective element of the second class, denoting the family relation of "brother," and "Richard;" it is equivalent to "Richard's." "Of" is the *connective*, and "Richard" is the *object*.

Of is a preposition, and shows the relation of "Richard" to "brother;" according to Rule XIII.

Richard is a proper noun, of the third person, singular number, masculine gender, objective case and completes the relation of the preposition "of;" according to Rule XIV.

His attempt to rescue his friend was fatal to himself.

NOTE. Analyze as in the last example.

Attempt, the subject, is limited by "to rescue," an adjective element of the second class, used to designate the attempt.

To rescue is a verb, (from *rescue*, *rescued*, *rescued*,) in the infinitive mode, present tense, and depends upon "attempts;" according to Rule XV.

EXERCISE.

Study LESSON XXIII., and then analyze the following examples, and parse the phrases: —

A man of straw was prostrated. The dew of the morning has passed away. The light of the moon assisted us. The king of Morven struck his breast. The temple of Solomon was destroyed. Time to come is called future. A desire to see you has brought me here. The spirit of Loda shrieked. The joy of his youth was great. The city of Mexico is beautifully situated. The hope of the hypocrite will fail. The man at the mast-head descried an iceberg. His intention to resign has been publicly announced. The true spirit of heroism is generous.

Write sentences limiting the subjects by the following phrases:—

Of morning; in the moon; of brass; of generosity; of America; of virtue; of seeing; of doing; of wood; of Europe; on board; of the house; of friends; of home.

MODEL. The dawn *of morning* found Waverly on the esplanade.

Change any twelve of the adjective elements in the preceding examples into equivalent forms of the first class.

MODEL. The *morning* dew has passed away.

Write sentences of your own, limiting the subjects by the following adjective elements; then change them to the second class.

Evening, virtuous, David's, Solomon's, generous, honorable, penniless, comfortless, coming, breathless, prosperous, experienced, deformed, wise, country, morning.

MODEL. An *evening* walk is agreeable = A walk *at evening* is agreeable.

What forms may be used instead of an adjective, to limit the subject? How is the preposition used? What is the noun or pronoun which follows it called? Give Rule XIII. Give Rule XIV. What is said of the infinitive? Give Rule XV.

LESSON XXXVII.

THE PREDICATE MODIFIED BY THE ADDITION OF PHRASES.

See Note at the beginning of Lesson XXXVI.

Objective Element. Instead of a single word, as in Lesson XXXIII., an infinitive may complete the meaning of a transitive verb; as, "He desired (what) *to write, to sing, to play,*" &c.

The infinitive is used to complete the meaning of verbs which do not take a substantive as an object; as, "He seemed *to revive*." In parsing the infinitive thus used, apply either Rule XV. or Rule VIII. Take the model in Lesson XXXIII. for analyzing.

EXERCISE.

Analyze the following examples, and parse the infinitives:—

They began to sing. The boy learned to write. I did not expect to find it. The children love to play. We hope to see him. The ambassador desired to have an interview.

He seemed to sleep. We ought to know. The sun appears to rise. The boy was anxious to learn. The student was ambitious to rise.

Write infinitives as objects to complete the meaning of the following predicates:—

We wish. They know how. James cannot learn. We did not intend. They will try. The boys hope. May we not expect?

Adverbial Element. Phrases, like adverbs, may denote *place, time, cause, and manner*.

MODEL FOR ANALYZING AND PARSING.

We left on Tuesday.

It is a simple sentence because it contains but one proposition.

We . . . is the subject, and

Left . . . is the predicate.

We . . . is not limited.

Left . . . is limited by the phrase "on Tuesday," which denotes the *time* of leaving, and is an adverbial element.

On . . . is a preposition, and shows the relation of "Tuesday" to "leave;" according to Rule XIII.

Tuesday is a noun, &c., and completes the relation of "on;" according to Rule XIV.

Place. Phrases denoting *place*, answer the questions, *Whither?* *Whence?* *Where?*

EXAMPLES. "The water runs (*whither?*) *to the ocean.*" The wind comes (*whence?*) *from the South.*" "The snow is melting (*where?*) *in the valley.*"

EXERCISE.

Analyze the following, and parse the phrases:—

The kangaroo lives in New Holland. Burgoyne surrendered at Saratoga. A treaty of peace was concluded at Marseilles. Napoleon was banished to St. Helena. The battle was fought at Vittoria. The church stands beside the river. Mesopotamia was situated between two rivers. The nuncio came from Rome. The Israelites came out of Egypt. They went to Canaan. We sat on the sofa. The birds flew over the barn. The rabbits burrowed under the tree. We sailed around the island.

Write sentences of your own, limiting the predicates by the following phrases:—

Over the hill; on the ground; up the tree; to New York; from Philadelphia; through the air; on the steps; toward the east; beside the wall; around the garden; by Long Island; along the road; athwart the sky.

MODEL. *The horse ran over the hill.*

Time. Phrases denoting *time* answer the questions, *When?* *How long?* *How often?*

EXAMPLES. "The boat will sail (*when?*) *on Monday.*" "It will be absent (*how long?*) *four days.*" "The task was performed (*how often?*) *four times.*" In the last two examples the preposition is understood.

EXERCISE.

Analyze the following, and parse the phrases:—

The steamer left on Friday. The cars will arrive at twelve. Some birds remain throughout the year. My

cousin staid a week. The work must be completed before Saturday. The stage will arrive towards morning. The president staid till Monday. The boat left after twelve. I have been here since sunrise. The boat was repaired six times.

Write ten sentences, each containing some phrase denoting time.

Select fifteen sentences from your reading lesson, each having a phrase denoting time.

Cause or Reason. Phrases denoting a cause or reason, answer the questions, *Why?* *For what?* as, "He was imprisoned (*why?*) *for debt.*"

The infinitive often answers the question *Why?* It then denotes a motive; as, "They went *to see.*"

EXERCISE.

The poor man died of hunger. The woman fainted from fright. The farmer was imprisoned for debt. The soldier fights for glory. The party were travelling for pleasure. The victim seemed, by his dress, to be a sailor. The children went to see the animals. They remained to visit their friends. Washington sent an officer to reconnoitre the enemy's camp. We stopped to see the consul.

Manner. Phrases denoting manner, answer the questions, *How?* or, *How much?*

EXERCISE.

Analyze the following, and parse the phrases:—

The anchor clung to the rock with tenacity. The elephant takes his food with his trunk. The dove flew with rapidity. The Greeks took Troy by stratagem. The coachman rode by in haste. They have rushed through like a hurricane. They devoured the earth like an army of

locusts. The Georgium Sidus was discovered by Herschel. Lightning and electricity were identified by Franklin. The man was culpable to a great degree. James walked with his sister. Columbus crossed the Atlantic with ninety men. The walls of Babylon were fifteen miles long. The jacket is too large for the boy. The water is too cold for bathing. The coat is two gay for an old man.

Write sentences limiting the predicates by the following phrases denoting agency. Then change the verb to the active voice:—

By Columbus; by Moses; by whales; by doves; by Washington; by Cromwell; by Socrates; by Judas; by Arnold; by Paul; by rabbits; by insects; by serpents; by bees; by labor.

MODEL. America was discovered by Columbus = Columbus discovered America.

Write sentences limiting the predicates by the following miscellaneous phrases:—

In haste; for a boy; with rapidity; like thunder; ten miles; six feet; seven rods; for me to do; with William; with a sword.

Change the following adverbs into phrases, and employ them in sentences of your own:—

Carefully, wisely, courageously, unblushingly, tenderly, diligently, harmlessly, furiously, despondingly, thoughtfully, incautiously, rapidly, boldly, timidly, foolishly, brightly, modestly, painfully, elegantly.

MODEL. He managed *with care*.

What may be used, instead of a single word, as the objective element? What forms may be used as the adverbial element? By what questions may we know a phrase denoting place? Time? Cause or reason? Manner?

LESSON XXXVIII.

COMPLEX AND COMPOUND PHRASES.

A phrase, used as an element of a sentence may, as in case of the single word, become complex or compound.

The phrase, in any of its uses, may be complex, (1,) by adding a *single word* to the object; as, "The appearance of *dark clouds* alarmed us;" — (2,) by adding another phrase to the object; as, "The king returned *in the gleam of his arms*."

Two phrases, like two single words, may be united by either of the coördinate conjunctions; as, "The islands of *Cuba* AND [of] *Hayti* belong to the West Indies." "The boy learned *to read* AND [to] *write*." "You may pass *through the house* AND *through the garden*.*

MODEL FOR ANALYZING COMPLEX ELEMENTS.

The whole course of his life has been distinguished by generous actions.

It is a simple sentence, because it contains but one proposition.

Course is the subject, and

Has been distinguished is the predicate.

The subject, *course*, is limited by "the" and "whole." It is also limited by the phrase "*of his life*," a complex adjective element, used to explain the "*course*." "*Life*" is limited by "*his*," which denotes *whose* life.

The predicate, *has been distinguished*, is limited by the phrase "by *generous actions*" — showing *how* the course of his life had been distinguished, and is a complex adverbial element. "*Actions*" is limited by "*generous*," showing *what kind* of actions.

* The preposition is generally omitted by ellipsis in the second phrase.

NOTE. A phrase may be joined to a single word used in **any** relation. Thus, "He gave a *word of caution*." The phrase "*of caution*" renders the object *word* complex.

EXERCISE.

Analyze the following sentences, and separate each complex element into its component parts, according to the model:—

The Spartan youth were accustomed to go barefoot. Many a despicable wretch lies under a marble monument, decorated with a flattering epitaph. Italy is a large peninsula, bounded on the north by the Alps. The king returned in the gleam of his arms. The chiefs gathered round the falling Carthon. His words reached the heart of Clessammor. After the denial of the charge, he withdrew in dignified displeasure. The prayers of David, the son of Jesse, are ended. Suddenly the sound of the signal-gun broke the stillness of the night. The same is true of literary men.

Write sentences, limiting the subject of each by one of the following adjectives or participles. Let each adjective or participle be placed at the beginning of the sentence, and be limited by some word or phrase.

Gliding, eager, feeding, anxious, desirous, floating, conscious, encircled, enriched, regardless, flying, searching, waiting, opening, commencing, wading, poring, finding, aware, awake, ambitious, robed, detained, amazed, indignant, confused.

MODEL. *Gliding along the edge of the horizon, a distant sail sometimes attracted our attention. Eager to attain to the highest rank, he labored incessantly.*

Write sentences introducing each of the following nouns or infinitives as objects, and let each be limited by some word or phrase:—

Laws, congress, constitution, county, work, discourse, fable, dialogue, catalogue, inventory, league, truce, country, labor

to study; to invite; to leave; to stay; to sing; to have run.

MODEL. The Romans examined *the laws of Solon*.

Use the following phrases as adverbial elements, and limit each by some word or phrase:—

In honor; on returning; by searching; in the capital; through the air; on opening; to solicit; to invite; over hills; under the wall; in search; into the town; for stealing; of his breaking; of her being sick; of his being a scholar.

MODEL. One hundred guns were fired *in honor of the victory gained by the Americans over the British*.

Analyze the following sentences and point out the compound phrases, showing also what words are omitted by ellipsis:—

A stream of flame and smoke issued from the chimney. The hearts of the brothers were not divided during the peace and the troubles of this life. The obligation of respect and love for parents never ceases. Hampden placed himself at the head of his countrymen, and across the path of tyranny. To be or not to be, is the question. Sarah loves to sing and dance. They were stationed there to defend the fort, and to awe the citizens.

Write sentences, introducing the following words as objects after a preposition, and let the phrases thus formed of the words between the semicolons, be united into compound adjective or adverbial elements.

Robber, murderer; truth, humanity; zeal, energy; England, America; Europe, Asia; hope, fear; day, night.

MODEL. The name of the *robber* and *murderer* has been ascertained.

May phrases become complex and compound? In what way may a phrase become complex? In what way compound?

LESSON XXXIX.

CLASSES OF INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES.

Interrogative sentences are of two kinds,—*direct* and *indirect*.

A *direct* interrogative sentence refers to the *whole* of the sentence which answers the question, and is always introduced by a verb of its auxiliaries; as, “Did you see John?” *Yes*, i. e., “I did see John.”

NOTE. Direct interrogative sentences are answered by *yes* or *no*, which are equivalent to a whole sentence.

An *indirect* interrogative sentence refers to some *part* of the sentence which answers the question and is always introduced by some interrogative word; as, “Who came?” *Ans. John*, i. e., “John came.”

The interrogatives are,—(1,) PRONOUNS; as, *Who?* *Which?* and *What?* (2,) PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES; as, *Which?* *What?* and *Many* preceded by *How*, *How many?*—and (3,) ADVERBS, (either words or phrases;) as, (*place,*) *Where?* *Whither?* *Whence?* (*time,*) *When?* *How long?* *How often?* (*cause,*) *Why?* *Wherefore?* (*manner,*) *How?* *How much?* Also, *At what place?* *On what day?* *For what reason?* *In what manner?* &c., &c.

MODELS FOR ANALYSIS.

Have you written?

It is an *interrogative* sentence, because it asks a question; *simple*, because it contains but one proposition; *direct*, because it requires an affirmation or denial.

You is the subject.

Have written is the predicate.

NOTE. The elements of an interrogative sentence are in all respects like those of a declarative.

Where does he live? Ans. *In Boston.*

It is an *interrogative* sentence, because it asks a question; *simple*, because it contains but one proposition; *indirect*, because it refers to a *part* of a corresponding declarative sentence, "in Boston."

He is the subject.

Does live . . . is the predicate.

The predicate is limited by "where," an adverbial element, inquiring for *place*.

Where is an interrogative adverb, and belongs to "does live;" according to Rule IX.

EXERCISE.

Analyze the following interrogative sentences; tell which are DIRECT and which are INDIRECT. Parse the interrogatives.

Are you here? Is your brother well? Have you returned? Is your master at home? Will you ride to town to-day? Do you think him so base? Have you learned the lesson? May we not sit under this tree? Must I leave town to-morrow? Am I my brother's keeper? Shall I send the letter to the office? Did you kill the Nemean lion? Who reported the doings of congress? Whose hat is this? Whom did the president nominate? Which book did you take? What name have his parents given him? How many soldiers were killed in the battle? What kind of people first inhabited England? When shall you visit the Springs? How long did he stay? How often does George visit his mother? Where is the promised fruit of all his toil? Whence comes this tumult? Why do you weave around you this thread of occupation? How did you come? In what way do you intend to go? To whom shall I deliver the message? At what time shall we send the letter?

Convert the above questions into declarative sentences. Place a period (.) at the end of each.

MODEL. You are here. Your brother is well.

Write sentences introduced by the following interrogatives :—

Why ? On what account ? Where ? When ? Whose ? Of whom ? On what ? Whither ? Whence ? In what place ? How many ? Whom ? Which ? In consideration of what ? On what condition ? How ? Wherein ? By what ? Over whom ? On what ? Under what ? Through what ? On whose account ?

Write an answer to each.

How many kinds of interrogative sentences are there ? Name them. What is a direct interrogative sentence ? An indirect ? What are the principal interrogatives ?

COMPLEX SENTENCES

LESSON X L.

THE SUBJECT MODIFIED BY THE ADDITION OF CLAUSES.

NOTE. The pupil has seen that, when one word or phrase is joined subordinately, so as to limit another word or phrase, the two united form a *complex element*. He is now to see that two sentences may be joined so that one shall be subordinate to the other and limit it, thus forming a COMPLEX SENTENCE.

Instead of a *single word or phrase*, a subordinate proposition may be used to limit the subject ; as, “The statements *which were made*, are true.”

The limiting proposition, whether joined to the subject or predicate, is called *subordinate*, because it depends upon another proposition, which, in reference to it, is called *principal*.



The propositions which unite to form a sentence are called *clauses*.

A complex sentence is formed by uniting a *principal* and a *subordinate* clause.

A complex sentence is formed by uniting two dissimilar simple sentences, just as a complex element is formed by uniting two dissimilar simple elements.

The parts which are essential to a subordinate clause are, a *connective*, a *subject*, and a *predicate*.

The connective is called *subordinate*, because it renders the proposition which follows it subordinate to some part of the principal proposition with which it is connected.

These connectives are parsed by the following rule : —

RULE XVI. *Subordinate* connectives are used to join dissimilar elements.

NOTE 1. These connectives are of three kinds, — *conjunctions*, *conjunctive adverbs*, and *relative pronouns*.

NOTE 2. In most cases, the subordinate connective has a corresponding word in the principal clause, called the *correlative*, as, "He was *so much injured* *that he could not walk*."

NOTE 3. A subordinate connective always unites the clause which it introduces to the word which the clause limits ; as, "I *PERCEIVE* *that you need assistance*."

Subordinate clauses are divided, according to their nature and use, into *substantive*, *adjective*, and *adverbial*.

A substantive clause is a *substantive* or an *infinitive* expanded into a proposition ; as, "Stealing is base" = "To steal is base" = "That one should steal is base."

An adjective clause is an *adjective*, *participle*, or *adjective phrase*, expanded into a proposition ; as, "A *generous* man = a man of *generosity* = a man *who is generous*, will be honored."

An adverbial clause is an *adverb*, or *adverbial phrase*, expanded into a proposition ; as, "The ship sailed *early* = *before sunrise* = *before the sun rose*."

Whenever a clause is used to limit a noun or pronoun it becomes an adjective element, and is hence called an *adjective clause* ; as, "A man *who is industrious*, will gain respect."

Adjective clauses are introduced by *relative pronouns*, which serve to connect them with a limited noun or pronoun called the *antecedent* ; as, "The *evil that men do*, lives after them."

The agreement of the relative is determined by the following Rule :—

RULE XVII. The relative must agree with its antecedent in *person*, *number*, and *gender*, but not necessarily in *case*.

NOTE 1. This rule is equally true of the personal and interrogative pronouns, though they do not always, like the relative, have an *immediate* antecedent.

NOTE 2. When the antecedent is compound, apply Rule XII.

NOTE 3. When the antecedent is a collective noun, the pronoun should be in the plural number, if the antecedent refers to the individuals composing the collection ; otherwise it should be in the singular ; as, "The committee *who were* appointed last year submitted no report." If reference were made to the committee as a body, *who* could not be used, but *which* or *that* must be substituted.

NOTE 4. Relative pronouns often relate, not to a word, but to a preceding *phrase* or *clause* ; as, "The boy closed the blinds, *which darkened the room*."

NOTE 5. The case of the relative depends upon the construction of the adjective clause ; as, "A man *who perseveres* will be honored ;" "The gentleman *whose aid was solicited* has left the city ;" "The book *which I purchased* is damaged ;" "The house *in which he lived* has passed into other hands."

MODELS FOR ANALYSIS.

A man who finds not satisfaction in himself, seeks for it in vain elsewhere.

It is a complex sentence, because it contains two dissimilar clauses.

Man is the subject of the principal clause.

Seeks is the predicate.

The subject is limited by "a," also by the adjective clause, "who finds not satisfaction in himself," which describes "man."

The complex subject . is "A man who finds not satisfaction in himself."

The predicate is limited by "for it," "in vain," and "elsewhere."

The complex predicate is "seeks for it in vain elsewhere."

Who is the subject of the adjective clause.

Finds is the predicate.

The predicate is limited, first, by "not ;" secondly, by "satisfaction ;" and thirdly, by "in himself."

Who is a relative pronoun, of the third person, singular number, masculine gender, according to Rule XVII. ; is the subject of the proposition, "who finds," &c., according to Rule I., and connects this proposition with "man," the subject of the principal clause, according to Rule XVI.

EXERCISE.

Analyze the following examples, and parse the relative pronouns :—

The rewards which are promised, shall be given. Cannot the man who is faithfully attached to religion be relied on with confidence ? He whom I loved is dead. Will not those who raise envy incur censure ? The globe on which we live, is but a planet. Whatever violates nature cannot be innocent. Whoever forgets a benefit, is an enemy to

society. Will not he whose desires are boundless, always be restless? The opinion that children may grow up as they please, seems to prevail. The reason why he left his mother in such peril, has never been satisfactorily given.

Write twenty sentences, limiting the subject of each by an adjective clause. In five, let the relative be in the nominative case; in five, let it be in the possessive case; in five, in the objective case after a transitive verb; and in five, let it be in the objective after a preposition. Let ten of the sentences be interrogative. (See note 5, RULE XVI.)*

Convert the following simple sentences into complex sentences, by expanding the Italicized adjective elements into clauses:—

The pride *of wealth* is contemptible. The *well-bred* man desires only to please. Reproof *given in public* hardens the heart. Milton *the poet* was blind. The sun, *vicegerent of his power*, shall rend the veil of parting night. A cottage *shaded with trees*, is a pleasant object. The butterfly, *child of the summer*, flutters in the sun. Cæsar, *the enslaver of his country*, was stabbed in the senate-house. The house *of my father* stands near the road. My brother's dog was killed.

MODEL. The pride *which wealth begets* is contemptible.

Change any twelve of the foregoing to interrogative sentences.

MODEL. Is not the pride which wealth begets contemptible?

Write complex sentences to the following compound subjects, limiting each by an adjective clause, (See RULE XII.)

The boy or the girl. The sun and moon. James or John. The fox and the geese. Not the servant, but the

* A word is said to be in the objective after a verb, when it completes its meaning, even though it is placed before it.

master. Susan, and not the sister. Neither the man nor the woman. Those books or slates. This boy or his parents. Some insect or reptile. Those trees or shrubs.

MODEL. The boy or the girl who painted this picture deserves much praise.

What other forms besides a single word or phrase may be used to limit the subject? What is the limiting proposition called? What are the propositions which form a sentence called? How is a complex sentence formed? How many parts are essential to a subordinate clause? What are they? Why is the connective called subordinate? Give Rule XVI. How are subordinate clauses divided? When is a clause called adjective? By what are adjective clauses introduced? Give Rule XVII.

LESSON XLI.

THE PREDICATE MODIFIED BY THE ADDITION OF CLAUSES.

The Objective Element. Instead of a *word* or *phrase*, a *clause* may be used to complete the meaning of a transitive verb; as, "I perceive *that you have ordered a supply*."

Objective clauses are *substantive clauses* in the objective case. They may be introduced by *that*, *but that*, *whether*, and the various interrogatives. (See Lessons XXIV. and XXXIX.)

Substantive clauses in the objective, generally follow verbs denoting,—1st. Some *act* or *state* of the mind (as perception, emotion, or will);—2d. A *declaration*, *order*, or *statement*; as, "I *wish that you would assist me*;" "The farmer *declared* that his *watch had gained half an hour in the night*."

MODEL FOR ANALYZING AND PARSING.

Do you know that you have wronged him?

It is a complex sentence, because it is composed of dissimilar clauses; *interrogative*, because it asks a question; *direct*, because it can be answered by *yes* or *no*.

You is the subject of the principal clause.

Do know is the predicate.

The predicate . is limited by "that you have wronged him," an objective element, denoting *what* is known. It is used as a noun, third person, singular number, neuter gender, and is the object of "do know;" according to Rule VIII. "Do know that you have wronged him," is the complex predicate.

You is the subject of the subordinate clause.

Have wronged . is the predicate.

The predicate . is limited by "him," a simple objective element, showing *whom*.

That is a subordinate conjunction, and connects the substantive clause, "you have wronged him," to the predicate of the principal clause, "know," according to Rule XVI.

EXERCISE.

Analyze the following propositions according to the model:—

I believed that all these objects existed within me. I know not whether he will go. Will you tell me whom you saw on the mall? We knew whose place was vacated. I knew not where I was. Will you tell me why you are sad? The teacher showed me wherein I had erred. My uncle explained how the seasons are produced. Will you show me why we invert the divisor? "I always thought," said he, "that philosophy served to make men happier." They say that they have bought it. The truly great consider, first, how they may gain the approbation of God. He inquired, "who comes there?"

Write objective clauses to complete the meaning of the following predicates :—

The fox said. I wish. Washington ordered. You see. They know. We hope. The general perceived. Some suppose. Many people think. Columbus declared. The president directed. We understand. Do you consider? Can you show? Have they feared?

MODEL. “The fox said *that the grapes were sour.*”

Let the following clauses be used as objects in sentences of your own, and make the first six interrogative :—

Why vapor rises; how the truth can be shown; when the boat is to sail; where the book may be found; on what the rule depends; that the *earth* turns on its axis; whether we shall go; but that I shall do it; whence it came; how often we should write compositions; in what place the goods are concealed.

MODEL. “Will you tell *why vapor rises?*”

Expand the following nouns, with the words belonging to them in Italics, into objective clauses :—

I forgot *the time of the lecture.* Socrates taught *the immortality of the soul.* Do you believe *the truth of these reports?* Explain *the cause of the tides.* Show me *the mode of its operation.* We anticipate *a pleasant day.* The officer found *the place of his concealment.* Did you hear of *his illness?* Who told you *of our success?* I wish *to go.* He expects *to be appointed.* Will you tell us *the object of this meeting?* The heathen believe *in a plurality of gods.*

MODEL. I forgot *when the lecture was to be given.*

Adverbial Element. Clauses like single words or phrases, may denote *place, time, cause, or manner*, and are hence called *adverbial clauses.*

Adverbial clauses are generally introduced by a

class of words called *conjunctive adverbs*; as,
 "The flowers will bloom, *when* spring comes."

MODEL FOR ANALYSIS.

When the wicked are multiplied, transgression increaseth.

It is a complex sentence. (Why?)

Transgression . . . is the subject of the principal clause.

Increaseth is the predicate.

The predicate . is limited by "when the wicked are multiplied," an adverbial clause^{*} denoting *time*. (See Rule IX.) The complex predicate is, "increaseth when the wicked are multiplied."

Wicked is the subject of the subordinate clause.

Are multiplied . is the predicate.

When is a subordinate connective, (conjunctive adverb of time,) and joins the adverbial clause which it introduces, to the predicate of the principal clause, according to Rule XVI. It limits "are multiplied" and "increaseth;" according to Rule IX.

Place. Clauses denoting place answer the questions, *Whither? Whence? Where?*

Clauses denoting place are introduced by the following conjunctive adverbs;—*where, whither, whence, wherever, whithersoever*; and the phrases, *as far as, as long as, farther than*.

EXERCISE.

Analyze the following sentences:—

The soldiers stopped where night overtook them. Where your treasure is, there will your heart be also. Wheresoever the carcass is, there will the eagles be gathered together. Where true religion has prevented one crime, false religions have afforded a pretext for a thousand. Where all is mercenary, nothing can be magnanimous. Whither I go, ye cannot come. I travelled where disappointment smiles at

hope's career. Where there is no law, there is no transgression.

Write clauses to show the place of the following events :—

We went. The money was concealed. The sun shines. The flies will collect. Bees may be found. The plain stretches.

Introduce the following adverbial clauses into appropriate sentences of your own.

Wherever you stay ; where we stand ; as far as one can see ; whither we go ; farther than the country is inhabited.

Time. Clauses denoting time answer the questions, *When ? How long ? How often ?*

The principal conjunctive adverbs denoting time are, *when, while, whilst, as, before, after, ere, till, until, since, whenever* ; and the phrases, *as long as, as soon as, the moment, the instant, no sooner . . . than.*

EXERCISE.

Analyze the following sentences, and parse the connectives :—

A dervise was journeying alone in the desert, when two merchants suddenly met him. When the million applaud you, seriously ask yourself what harm you have done. When you have nothing to say, say nothing. Cromwell followed little events, before he ventured to govern great ones. The age of miracles is passed, while that of prejudice remains. At length, the dial instituted a formal enquiry as to the cause of the stagnation, when hands, wheels, weights, with one voice, protested their innocence. As we were walking together, we met a stranger. I have not visited the city since we dissolved our partnership. As soon as we came in sight, the birds were frightened from the tree. I will remain until you return.

Write appropriate clauses, denoting time, to each of the following sentences :—

I saw the smouldering ruins. We heard a distant cry. Will you answer my letter ? The child may attend school. Migratory birds return to the north. You may play. How old were you ? We should aid our friends.

Write five complex INTERROGATIVE sentences, and let the dependent clause denote time.

Causal Clauses. Causal clauses may denote a cause or reason, a condition, a purpose, or a concession. They answer the questions, *Why ? On what condition ? For what reason ?*

The first of these are introduced by *because, for, as, whereas, since.*

EXERCISE.

Analyze the following sentences, and point out the causal clauses :—

A peace which consults the good of both parties, is the firmest, because both parties are interested in its preservation. We hate some persons because we do not know them. As retreat was now impossible, Colter turned the head of the canoe. Ye receive me not, because ye know him not. Since you have been intrusted with such treasures, you ought to practice the utmost vigilance.

Write clauses which shall give a reason for the following statements :—

The tides rise. The moon is eclipsed. We left the city. We should acquire knowledge. We should form good habits in youth. You should honor your parents. Let us shun the company of the vicious. Improve your time. Cultivate agreeable manners. Love your enemies. We should sympathize with the suffering.

MODEL. The tides rise, because the moon attracts the water.

Write statements for which the following causal clauses shall give a reason.

Because the engines were out of order; for it rained incessantly; since you will not come to me; as the troops were much fatigued; because you preferred to walk.

A conditional clause expresses the condition under which an action or event may take place. The verb of the conditional clause is in the subjunctive mode.

The connectives of conditional clauses are, *if, though, except, provided that*. The connective is sometimes understood; as, "Should you leave the city, will you write me?"

EXERCISE.

Analyze the following complex sentences, point out the conditional clauses, and parse the connectives:—

If a tree loses its leaves before the fruit is ripe, the latter becomes withered. Except ye repent, ye shall all likewise perish. If you will read my story, you can judge for yourself. If you would enjoy health, bathe often. I shall leave to-morrow, unless my friend arrives. You may return, if you please. Should it rain to-morrow, the lecture will be postponed. Were patrons more disinterested, ingratitude would be more rare. Had I acted from personal enmity, I should justly be despised.

Write conditional clauses to limit the following sentences, used as principal clauses:—

We shall go. You may attend school. The moon will be eclipsed. The patient will recover. George will improve. The ice will melt. The plants will not thrive. The stream

cannot be crossed. The labor must be performed. Remorse will ensue. He can perform the task. Water will become ice. Fruit will not ripen.

MODEL. We shall go, *if it is pleasant.*

Apply a consequence to the following conditions :—

If you leave ; should he stay ; had I stopped ; were the measure to be adopted ; could we ascend the ladder ; unless relief come immediately ; if the day should be unpleasant should the wind blow ; except he yield to the proposal provided that a sufficient number of men can be obtained.

MODEL. If you leave, *no one can supply your place.*

Clauses which denote a *purpose* or *motive*, are called *final clauses*. They are connected by *that*, *that not*, and *lest*.

EXERCISE.

Analyze the following sentences, point out the clauses denoting a purpose, and parse the connectives :—

I have brought a passage that you may explain it. He visited the springs, that he might improve his health. I have been the more careful, that I might not be the instrument of his ruin. He sent me a history of Rome, that I might examine it. I opened the door that I might see who was there. He went to the city, that he might consult an attorney.

Write clauses denoting a PURPOSE or MOTIVE to the following :—

We should take exercise. Avoid trees in a thunder-storm. Study. Improve your time. Shun bad company. Take heed. Reprove not a scorner. Answer not a fool according to his folly. Oblige your friends. He opened the window. He fled his country.

Change the above clauses denoting purpose to infinitives.

Write sentences in which the following infinitives shall denote purpose, and then change them to clauses :—

'To see his brother ; to hear the news ; to enjoy the sea-breeze ; to write a letter ; to educate his children ; to take lessons in music ; to catch a robber ; to sell his furniture , to obtain a situation in the bank.'

An adversative clause is used when something is conceded as opposed to a result.

The principal connectives of adversative clauses are, *though*, *although*, *notwithstanding*, *however*, *while*, and sometimes *whatever*, and *whoever*.

EXERCISE.

Analyze the following sentences, and point out the adversative clause :—

Though he was rich, yet for our sakes he became poor. Although the place was unfavorable, nevertheless Cæsar determined to attack the enemy. However careless he might seem, his fortune depended upon the decision. He would pull a mote out of his neighbor's eye, while he has a beam in his own.

Expand the following Italicized phrases into adversative clauses :—

With all his faults, I love him. He applied for a situation, *without a recommendation*. *Notwithstanding the storm*, we commenced our journey. *Despite of opposition*, he made his way to distinction.

MODEL. *Though he has many faults*, I love him.

Write a sentence having an adversative clause for each of the connectives, though, although, notwithstanding, however while.

Manner. Clauses denoting manner answer the questions, *How?* or, *How much?* and denote (1,) a correspondence, (2,) a consequence, (3,) equality, or inequality in magnitude.

Correspondence is generally indicated by *as, just as, so—as;* *Consequence*, by *so—that, such—that, ; equality, by as—as; inequality, by than, more—than, less—than.*

EXERCISE.

Analyze the following sentences, and tell which denote CORRESPONDENCE, which CONSEQUENCE, and which EQUALITY or INEQUALITY.

As a bird that wandereth from her nest, so is a man that wandereth from his place. As the door turneth upon its hinges, so doth the slothful man upon his bed. Will you read so that you can be heard? Happiness is much more equally distributed than some suppose. Is gravity always as wise as it appears? Experience is a surer guide than imagination. Is it not better to be laughed at than ruined? Moses built the tabernacle, as he was commanded. Do as your parents bid you. Can you paint the picture as she does? Our lesson is the same as that we had yesterday.

Write clauses denoting correspondence, to complete the following:—

As a man thinketh. Will you be so good. The pupil wrote the copy just as. The boy sings as. The task is the same as. Speak as. Make the mark just as.

Write clauses denoting consequence or effect to complete the following:—

The day was so stormy. The sun is so bright. The patient had gained so much strength. The hours seemed

so long. They gave him so little money. We should acquire knowledge so that. It is so cold. We have had so much rain.

Write clauses denoting comparison of equality applied to the following adjectives :—

Wise, great, stupid, long, broad, fierce, cool, strong, weak, thin, bright, dark, faithful.

MODEL. Was Lycurgus *as wise as Solon?*

Write clauses denoting comparison of inequality applied to the same.

MODEL. Solon was wiser than Lycurgus = Lycurgus was not so wise as Solon.

What form besides a word or phrase may be used to complete the meaning of a transitive verb? What are objective clauses? By what are they introduced? What is an adverbial clause? How are adverbial clauses introduced? What questions do clauses denoting place answer? Repeat the words which introduce them. What questions do clauses denoting time answer? Repeat the conjunctive adverbs denoting time. What may causal clauses denote? Repeat the principal connectives of the first class. What is a conditional clause? Give the connectives. What do final clauses denote? When is an adversative clause used? Give the connectives. What questions do clauses denoting manner answer? What do they denote? Give the connectives.

LESSON XLII.

COMPLEX AND COMPOUND ELEMENTS CONTAINING CLAUSES.

When a subordinate clause is joined to some word or phrase by a subordinate connective, the two

united form a complex element ; as, "I have brought the book which you sent for."

When two subordinate clauses are joined together by one of the coördinate conjunctions, they form a compound element ; as, "I thought that the substance of the fruit had become part of my own, AND that I was endowed with the power of transforming bodies."

EXERCISE.

Analyze the following sentences, and point out the complex elements :—

Most of the palms bear fruit, which supplies the people where they grow with the greatest part of their food. Wasps construct very curious nests, in which they deposit their eggs. The care which God takes of all his creatures is singularly shown in the modes in which the eggs of insects are preserved from cold or wet.

Analyze the following sentences, and point out the compound clauses :—

I soon perceived that I had the power of losing and of recovering them, and that I could, at pleasure, destroy and renew this beautiful part of my existence. That their poetry is almost uniformly mournful, and that their views of nature were dark and dreary, will be allowed by all who admit the authenticity of Ossian. I neither knew what I was, where I was, nor from whence I came. Why we are thus detained, or why we receive no intelligence from home is mysterious.

Amongst that number was an old man, who had fallen an early victim to adversity, and whose days of imprisonment, reckoned by the notches which he had cut on the door of his gloomy cell, expressed the annual circuit of more than

fifty suns. Bruyere declares, that we are come into the world too late to produce any thing new; that nature and life are preoccupied; and that description and sentiment have been long since exhausted.

When does a subordinate clause help form a complex element ?
When do subordinate clauses form compound elements ?

LESSON XLIII.

PHRASES AND CLAUSES USED AS THE SUBJECT OR PREDICATE.

NOTE. In the preceding lessons the subjects and predicates of the exercises have been of the simplest form, while the additions to each have been either words, phrases, or clauses. In this lesson the pupil will see that the subject or the attribute of the predicate may be a phrase or a clause.

The subject of a sentence may be either a *substantive phrase*, or a *substantive clause*; as, “*To steal* is base;” “*That one* should steal, is base.”

These sentences may take either of two forms. The subject may be placed before the predicate, or it may be first represented by the *expletive* “it,” and then placed after the predicate; as, “*To see the sun* is pleasant” = “*It* is pleasant *to see the sun*;” “*How it* should be done is not clear” = “*It* is not clear *how it* should be done.”

NOTE. The “it” in the above examples should not be regarded as the subject. The infinitive or clause is the subject after the change, as much as before. The expletive introduces the sentence in an agreeable manner.

MODELS FOR ANALYZING AND PARSING.

To steal is base.

It is a simple sentence, because it contains but one proposition.

To steal is the subject, because it is that of which the quality, "base," is affirmed. It is a principal element of the second class.

Is base is the predicate, because it is the quality affirmed of "to steal." "Is" is the verb, and "base" is the attribute.

To steal is a verb, (principal parts, *steal, stole, stolen,*) in the infinitive mode, present tense, and is used as a noun, (third person, singular number, neuter gender, and nominative case,) in the relation of subject; according to Rule I.

Who was the author of Junius's Letters, has never been satisfactorily determined.

It is a complex sentence, because it contains a principal and a subordinate clause.

Who was the author of Junius's Letters, is the subject of the principal clause.

Has been determined is the predicate.

The predicate . . . is limited by "satisfactorily," an adverbial element of the first class, denoting *manner*.

Who was the author, &c., is a principal element of the third class. It is used as a noun, third person, singular number, neuter gender, nominative case, and is the subject of the sentence; according to Rule I.

Who is the subject of the subordinate clause, and *Was author* is the predicate.

Author is limited first by "the," and secondly by "of Junius's Letters."

Who is an interrogative pronoun, used in a subordinate clause. It has no antecedent. It is of the third person, singular number, masculine gender, nominative case, and is the subject of "was;" according to Rule IV. It connects the two dissimilar clauses, by Rule XVI.

NOTE. "*Who was the author*" may be considered as the grammatical subject of the complex sentence, and "*Who was the author of Junius's Letters,*" the logical subject.

EXERCISE.

Analyze the following propositions, and parse the infinitives:—

To be good is to be happy. To err is human. To forgive is divine. To obey is to enjoy. To swear is wicked. To see the sun is pleasant. To acquire knowledge is necessary. To repent is our duty.

It is easy to deceive children. It is wrong to excite false hopes. It is pleasant to receive our friends. It is wrong to hate our enemies.

Write predicates to the following infinitives used as subjects:—

To be idle; to labor; to write; to cheat; to love our enemies; to disobey our parents.

MODEL. To be idle is *criminal*.

Write infinitives as subjects to the following predicates, the sentence being introduced by "it":—

It is easy. It is contemptible. It is enough. It is difficult. It is wrong. It pleased him. It encourages a child. It is important.

Analyze the following complex sentences according to the model:—

That the earth is a sphere, is easily proved. That no man is justified by the law in the sight of God, is evident. Whether the truth will be made to appear, is uncertain. Where the robber concealed his stolen treasures, has never been ascertained. When letters were first used, is not certain. Why he resigned his office, will soon be made known. How he made his escape, is a mystery. Who gave the information, has been ascertained. Will he do it? is the question.

Write the above sentences, and introduce each by "it."

Write substantive clauses to complete the following; and then change them so as to place the subject before the predicate, dispensing with "it":—

It is evident. It is uncertain. It appears. It has been ascertained. It is mysterious. It is well known. It will be shown. It is true. It is probable. It was denied by none.

MODEL. *It is evident that the bill will be defeated* =— That the bill will be defeated, is evident.

Expand the following SUBSTANTIVES and INFINITIVES, with the words joined to them in Italics, into substantive clauses used as subjects:—

To swear is impious. *To err* is human. *The utility of the telegraph* is acknowledged. *The name of the swimmer* is not known. *The place of his concealment* has not been determined. *The time of the boat's arrival* was well known. *The cause of his delay* is unknown. *The immortality of the soul* is universally believed. *The authenticity of the Scriptures* has been clearly proved.

MODEL. *That one should swear*, is impious. *That the telegraph is useful*, is acknowledged.

The predicate of a proposition may be formed by means of the *copula* and a *substantive or adjective phrase*, or a *substantive clause*; as, “*To obey is to enjoy* ;” “*George was in fault* ;” “*My desire is that you may succeed*.”

MODEL FOR ANALYZING AND PARSING.

He is without fear.

NOTE. Analyze as above.

Is without fear, the predicate, denotes a *state* of the subject. “*Is*” is the copula, and “*without fear*” is the attribute, it is equivalent to *fearless*, and relates to the subject; according to Rule III.

Without is a preposition, and shows the relation of "fear" to "he;" according to Rule XIII.

Fear is a common noun, &c., and object:ve case, and is used to complete the relation denoted by "with out;" according to Rule XIV.

EXERCISE.

Analyze the following propositions, and parse the predicates :—

His nephew is to be educated. The captive is to be released. George was in fault. The child was in ecstacy. The passage is to be found. He is at supper. The patient is in distress. Our word is not to be broken. The trees are in blossom. The prisoner is without friends.

Analyze the following complex sentences, and parse the predicates :—

My desire is, that you may succeed. The question is, How shall the treasury be replenished? His pretence was, that the storm of the preceding evening prevented his attendance. Your belief is, that the enemy has crossed the mountain. My determination is, that you shall attend school in the country.

Write complex sentences to the following subjects, and let the predicates be substantive clauses :—

Question, answer, recommendation, proposal, design, words, orders, resolution.

What besides a single word may be used for the subject? What two forms may such sentences take? What besides a sing'e word may unite with the copula to form the predicate?

COMPOUND SENTENCES.

LESSON XLIV.

CLASSES OF COÖRDINATE CLAUSES.

A *compound* sentence is formed by joining two principal clauses.

The two clauses which unite to form a compound sentence are *similar* in rank; hence they are called *coördinate*.

Coördinate clauses may be divided into three classes, according to the connective used,— *copulative*, *adversative*, and *alternative*.

A *copulative* clause is one that is so united to another as to express an additional thought, and thereby to give a greater extent to its meaning; as, “Give me a book AND I will give you a slate.”

An *adversative coördinate* clause is one which stands opposed to, or contrasted with the preceding clause; as, “Vice stings us in our pleasures, BUT virtue consoles us in our pains.”

Alternative clauses are such as offer or deny a choice between two statements; as, “We must conquer, OR our liberties are lost.”

Two connectives are often used; when one is placed in the first and the other in the added clause, the two are called *correlatives*; as, “*Not only* am I instructed by this exercise, *but* I am also invigorated;” but when both connectives are found in the added clause, the second one is called an *associate* connective. It gives some additional shade of meaning to the clause; as, “Susan is learning music *AND*, *besides*, she attends to drawing.” The *associate* connective stands alone, when the principal conjunction is understood; as, “The storm has abated; *therefore* let us resume our journey”

NOTE. The connectives *therefore*, *hence*, *consequently*, *wherefore* *then*, are by some considered as connecting a distinct class called causal coördinate clauses. They are, it is true, used in coördinate clauses, but never, like *and*, *or*, *nor*, and *but*, connect the coördinate parts of a clause, and in very many cases, when used, one of the foregoing conjunctions precedes them. They have, hence, in this as in the larger work, been reckoned among those connectives which serve to give a specific shade of meaning to a coördinate clause.

The principal coördinate conjunctions are (*copulative*) — AND with the correlatives, *both* — *and*; *as well* — *as*; *not only* — *but*, *but also*, *but likewise*; — (*adversative*) — BUT with the correlatives, *indeed* .. *but*; *on the one hand* .. *on the other hand*; *now* — *then*; — (*alternative*) — OR, NOR, NEITHER with the correlatives, *either* .. *or*; *neither* .. *nor*.

NOTE. In analyzing compound sentences, take each clause separately and parse the conjunction according to Rule XI.

EXERCISE.

Analyze the following sentences and parse the conjunctions: —

Copulative. I was eyes to the blind, and feet was I to the lame. This part of knowledge has been growing, and it will continue to grow till the subject be exhausted. I conceived a great regard for him, and I could not but mourn for the loss he had sustained. The more sleek the prey, the greater the temptation; and no wolf will leave a sheep, to dine upon a porcupine. Not only am I instructed by this exercise, but I am also invigorated. A hero on the day of battle has sacrificed a meal, and shall we therefore pity him? The situation is not suited to his tastes; the compensation, moreover, is meagre. Green is the most refreshing color to the eye, hence Providence has made it the common dress of nature.

Adversative. I strenuously opposed those measures, but it was not in my power to prevent them. We submit to the society of those that can inform us, but we seek the society

of those whom we can inform. Vice stings us even in our pleasures, but virtue consoles us even in our pains. They have, indeed, honored them with their praise, but they have disgraced them with their pity. Some men know but little of their profession, but yet they often succeed in life better than those whose attainments they can never reach. A clownish air is but a small defect; still it is enough to make a man disagreeable.

Alternative. A jest is not an argument; nor is a loud laugh a demonstration. I neither learned wisdom, nor have I a knowledge of the holy. He either left the key in the door, [or] else the robber had a false key. I have none; else would I give it. He is either sick or fatigued.

Add either copulative, adversative, or alternative clauses to each of the following simple sentences:—

We must conquer. The debt must be paid. The child will be relieved soon. He has returned. The lecture has either been very long. He has not the strength to accomplish the work. We must retreat.

How may compound sentences be formed? Into how many classes may coördinate clauses be divided? What is a copulative clause? What is an adversative clause? What is an alternative clause?

PROSODY.

LESSON XLV.

DIFFERENT KINDS OF VERSE.

PROSODY treats of the laws of versification.

A *verse* is a succession of accented and unaccented syllables, constituting a line of poetry.

Verse is of two kinds,—*rhyme* and *blank verse*.

In rhyme, there is a correspondence in sound between the last syllables of different lines.

Blank verse is without rhyme.

Accent is a stress of the voice placed upon a particular syllable, to distinguish it from others. Every word consisting of more than one syllable, must have one of its syllables accented.

The *quantity* of a syllable is the time employed in uttering it. All syllables are either *long* or *short*.

A long syllable is equal in quantity to two short ones.

A *foot* is a portion of verse containing two or more syllables, combined according to accent.

The principal feet, in English, are the *iambus*, the *trochée*, the *anapæst*, and the *dactyle*.

The *iambus* consists of a short and long syllable.

The *trochée* of a long and a short syllable.

The *anapæst* consists of two short syllables and one long one.

The *dactyle* consists of one long and two short syllables.

Scanning consists in dividing a verse into the feet which compose it.

IAMBIC VERSE.

1 *Iambic of one foot* :—

Thĕy gō
To sow.

2 *Iambic of two feet* :—

Tō mē | thĕ rōse
No longer glows.

3 *Iambic of three feet* :—

Nō rōy- | āl pōmp | ādōrns
This King of righteousness.

4 *Iambic of four feet* :—

And cōld- | ēr still | thĕ wīnds | dīd blōw
And darker hours of night came on.

5. *Iambic of five feet, or pentameter* :—

On ɪft- | ɛd rōcks, | thě drāg- | ɔn's lāte | əbōdes,
The green reed trembles, and the bulrush nods.

6. *Iambic of six feet, or hexameter* :—

His heāt | ɪs sād, | his hōpe | ɪs gōne, | his light | ɪs pāssed ;
He sits an l mourns in silent grief the lingering day.

7. *Iambic of seven feet, or heptameter* :—

Thě lōf- | tȳ hīll, | thě hūm- | blē lāwn, | wīth cōunt- |
lēss beāu | tiēs shīne.

The silent grove, the solemn shade, proclaim thy power divine.

Iambic of five feet is called *heroic verse* ; that of six feet is called *Alexandrine*.

Iambic of seven feet is commonly divided into two lines, — the first containing four feet, the second three. This is called *common metre* ; as,

The lofty hill, the humble lawn,
With countless beauties shine ,
The silent grove, the solemn shade,
Proclaim thy power divine.

In *long metre*, each line has four iambic feet ; in *short metre*, the first, second, and fourth lines contain three iambic feet, the third four.

Each species of iambic verse may have one additional short syllable. Thus, in the second species, —

Upōn | ă mōun- | taĭn.

TROCHAIC VERSE

1. *Trochaic of one foot* : —

Chāngǐng,
Ranging.

2. *Trochaic of two feet* : —

Fāncŷ | viēwīng,
Joys ensuin̄e

3. *Trochaic of three feet* : —

Gō whēre | glōrȳ | wāits thēe.
But when fame elates thee.

4. *Trochaic of four feet* : —

Rōund ā | hōlȳ | cālm dīf- | fūsing,
Love of peace and lonely musing.

5. *Trochaic of five feet* : —

All thāt | wālk ḥn ; fōot ḥr | rīde īn | chāriōts,
All that dwell in palaces or garrets.

6. *Trochaic of six feet* : —

On ā | mōuntāin | strētched, bě- | nēath ā | hōarȳ | willōw,
Lay a shepherd swain, and viewed the rolling billow..

In trochaic verse, the accent is placed upon the odd syllables ; in iambic, on the even.

Trochaic verse may take an additional long syllable , as,

Idlē | āftēr | dīnnēr, | īn hīs | chāir
Sat a farmer, ruddy, fat, and fair.

ANAPÄESTIC VERSE.

1. *Anapæstic of one foot* : —

Būt īn vāin
They complain.

2. *Anapæstic of two feet* : —

Whēre thē sūn | lōves tō pāuse
With so fond a delay.

3. *Anapæstic of three feet* : —

Frōm thē cēn- | trē, ḥll rōund | tō thē sēa,
I 'm lord of the fowl and the brute.

4. *Anapæstic of four feet* : —

At thē clōse | ḥf thē dāy, | whēn thē hām- | lēt Is still,
And mōrtals the swēets of forgētfulness prove.

In anapæstic verse, the accent falls on every third syllable.
The first foot of an anapæstic verse may be an iambus ; as,

And mōr- | tāls thē swēets | ḥf fōrgēt- | tūlnēss prōva

DACTYLIC VERSE.

1. *Dactylic of one foot* :—

Chēerfüllȳ,
Fearfully.

2. *Dactylic of two feet* :—

Freē frōm ānx | iětȳ,
Care and satiety.

3. *Dactylic of three feet* :—

Weāring ā- | wāy īn hīs | yoūthfūlněss,
Loveliness, beauty, and truthfulness.

4. *Dactylic of four feet* :—

Bōys wīlł ān- | tīcīpāte, | lāvīsh, ānd | dīssīpāte
All that your busy pate hoarded with care.

Few poems are perfectly regular in their feet. The different kinds of feet are often mingled in the same verse. Thus :—

I cōme, | I cōme ; | yě hăve cālled | mě lōng ;
I cōme | ö'er thē mōun- | taīns wīth light | ānd sōng.

NOTE. For exercises in scanning, let the pupil apply these rules to different verses in his reading lessons.

LESSON XLVI.

PUNCTUATION.

PUNCTUATION is the art of dividing written composition by means of points.

The principal points are the *comma* (,), the *semicolon* (;), the *colon* (:), the *dash* (—), the *parenthesis* (), the *period* (.), the *interrogation point* (?), and the *exclamation point* (!).

THE COMMA.

The comma is used to denote the shortest pause, and commonly separates the elements of a simple or complex sentence.

NOTE. The pupil should recollect that the elements of a sentence may be either *words*, *phrases*, or *clauses*. The most general Rules only, are here given ; for more particular Rules see "Analysis of Sentences."

RULE I. When the elements of a sentence are *simple*, and are arranged in the natural order, they should not be separated ; but when any element is transposed, loosely connected, or used parenthetically, it should be pointed off.

EXAMPLES.

"The path of virtue is the path of peace."

"Self-denial is the sacrifice *which virtue must make.*"

"*Intrinsically*, the other is the most valuable."

"*In general*, his work is superior to mine."

"He lived, *as he said*, upon a vegetable diet."

RULE II. When an element is *complex*, and considerably extended, it should be pointed off by the comma.

NOTE. This rule applies to the complex subject of a simple sentence when long, or to the noun in apposition when considerably extended ; as, "The intermixture of evil in human society, serves to exercise the noblest virtues of the human soul ;" "Paul, the apostle of the Gentiles."

RULE III. When an element is *compound*, the component parts, if they exceed two, are separated by the comma ; as, "Some men sin *frequently, deliberately, and presumptuously.*"

NOTE. If the component parts do not exceed two, they are pointed off—(1,) when *or* denotes an *alternative of words*, (not ideas) ; as, "The *gulf, or bay* is dangerous ;" —(2,) when they denote *contrast* ; as, "Though *deep, yet clear* ;" —(3,) when one or both are *complex* ; as, "He *left, and took* his brother with him."

THE COLON AND SEMICOLON.

The *colon* and *semicolon* are used chiefly to separate the members of a compound sentence ; as, "Every thing grows old : every thing passes away ; every thing disappears."

NOTE 1. The colon is now but little used, except before examples following the expressions *as follows*, *the following examples*, *in these words*, &c. ; as, "Perform the following exercises :" — "He used these words : 'Mr. President,' &c."

NOTE 2. When, in a complex sentence, several subordinate clauses are united to each other, having a common dependence upon the principal clause, they are separated by the semicolon ; as, "Philosophers assert that Nature is unlimited in her operations ; that she has inexhaustible treasures in reserve ; that knowledge will always be progressive ; and that future generations will continue to make discoveries."

THE DASH AND PARENTHESIS.

The *dash* is used where there is a significant pause, an unexpected transition in the sentence, or where a sentence is left unfinished ; as, "He sometimes council takes—and sometimes snuff ;" "But I must first ———"

The dash is now frequently used instead of the parenthesis ; as, "The colonists—such is human nature—desired to burn the town in which they had been so wretched."

The *parenthesis* is used to enclose a part of a sentence not necessary to the construction, but in some way explanatory of the meaning of the sentence ; as, "Consider (and may the consideration sink deep into your hearts) the fatal consequences of a wicked life."

THE PERIOD.

The *period* is used at the close of a declarative or imperative sentence ; as, "The work is done." "Obey your parents."

The period is also used to denote an abbreviation ; as, "P. M.;" "Dr."

INTERROGATION POINT.

An *interrogation point* is used at the close of a question ; as, "Who comes there ?"

EXCLAMATION POINT.

An *exclamation point* is used at the close of an exclamatory sentence ; as, "How unsearchable are his ways !"

An exclamation point is often used within a sentence, after an exclamatory expression or an interjection ; as, "O, Jove supreme ! whom men and gods revere !" "Oh ! let soft pity touch the mind !"

RULES FOR THE USE OF CAPITAL LETTERS.

1. The first word of every entire sentence should begin with a capital ; as, "*Jesus wept.*"
2. Titles of honor and respect, and every proper name, and every adjective derived from a proper name, should begin with a capital ; as, *His Highness, Boston, Bostonian.*
3. Every appellation of the Deity should begin with a capital ; as, *God, Jehovah, the Eternal.*
4. The first word of every line in poetry should begin with a capital.
5. The words *I* and *O* should always be capitals.
6. Any important word may begin with a capital.
7. The principal words in the titles of books should begin with capitals ; as, *Pope's "Essay on Man."*
8. The first word of a direct quotation, when the quotation forms a complete sentence by itself, should begin with a capital.

EXERCISE.

Explain the use of the points in the following examples :—

Yet, at thy call, the hardy tar pursued,
Pale, but intrepid ; sad, but unsubdued.

Yes ! Bunker Hill Monument is completed. Here it stands, fortunate in the natural eminence on which it is erected ; majestic in its object and purpose.

Where art thou fled ?

In pride, in reasoning pride, our error lies ;
All quit their sphere, and rush into the skies.

Punctuate the following examples :—

Shakspeare Butler and Bacon have rendered it extremely difficult for all who come after them to be sublime witty or profound Of the professions it may be said that soldiers are becoming too popular parsons too lazy physicians too mercenary and lawyers too powerful Of method it may be said if we make it our slave it is well but it is bad if we are slaves to method Will a man rob God Who came from the mountain King Agrippa believest thou the prophets What black despair what horror fills his heart

Correct the following by inserting capitals where they belong :—

the first word of every entire sentence should begin with a capital. the british nation were shocked by an attempt to assassinate her majesty. the lord reigneth.

why, ye tenants of the lake
for me your watery haunt forsake.

i heard him say “ o, the times, the times
i have read pope’s essay on man.

fain would i say “forgive my foul offence!”
 fain promise never more to disobey ;
 but should my author health again dispense
 again i might desert fair virtues way

LESSON XLVII.

RULES—EXAMPLES TO BE CORRECTED.

SUBJECT.

RULE I. A noun or pronoun used as the *subject* of a proposition must be in the nominative case ; as, “*Life* is short.”

(For notes, see page 93.)

PREDICATE.

RULE II. A noun or pronoun used with the copula to form the *predicate*, must be in the nominative case ; as, “*Cicero* was an *orator*.”

(For notes, see page 96.)

RULE III. An adjective used with the copula to form the *predicate*, belongs to the subject ; as, “*The stars* are *bright*.”

(For notes, see page 98.)

RULE IV. The *verb* must agree with its subject in number and person ; as, “*I am* here ;” “*Thou sittest*.”

(For notes, see page 100.)

ADJECTIVE ELEMENT.

RULE V. An adjective or participle used as a *modifier*, belongs to the noun or pronoun which it limits ; as, “*Those*

trees have fallen ; ” “ A path *winding* through the forest, indicated their course.”

(For notes, see page 108.)

RULE VI. A noun or pronoun used to *identify* another noun or pronoun, is put by apposition in the same case ; as, “ His brother *George* was absent.”

(For notes, see page 111.)

RULE VII. A noun or pronoun used to limit another noun by denoting *possession*, must be in the possessive case ; as, “ *Stephen's* courage failed.”

(For notes, see page 112.)

OBJECTIVE ELEMENT.

RULE VIII. A noun or pronoun used as the *object* of a transitive verb or its participles, must be in the objective case ; as, “ We paid *him*.”

(For notes, see page 115.)

ADVERBIAL ELEMENT.

RULE IX. Adverbs are used to limit verbs, participles, adjectives, and other adverbs ; as, “ The letter was written *hastily*.”

(For notes, see page 117.)

INTERJECTIONS AND THE CASE INDEPENDENT.

RULE X. The nominative case independent, and the interjection, have no grammatical relation to the other parts of the sentence ; as, “ *Sirs*, be of good cheer ; ” “ O, death where is thy sting ! ”

(For notes, see page 119.)

CONNECTIVES.

NOTE.—The following rules apply either to connectives or to words in some way associated with connectives.



RULE XI. *Coördinate* conjunctions are used to connect similar elements ; as, " Abraham, Isaac, and Jacob, were patriarchs."

(For notes, see page 122.)

RULE XII. When a verb or pronoun relates to two or more nouns connected by a coördinate conjunction,—

(1.) If it agrees with them taken *conjointly*, it must be in the *plural number* ;—

(2.) But, if it agrees with them taken *separately*, it must be of the same number as that which stands next to it ;—

(3.) If it agrees with one, and *not* the other, it must be of the same number as that with which it agrees.

RULE XIII. A preposition is used to show the relation of its object to the preceding word on which the object depends ; as, " George *went into* the garden."

The following is the rule for the object :—

RULE XIV. A noun or pronoun used to complete the relation of a preposition, must be in the objective case ; as, " They gathered around *him*."

(For notes, see page 128.)

RULE XV. The infinitive depends upon the word which it limits ; as, " We *went to see* you."

(For notes, see page 128.)

RULE XVI. *Subordinate* connectives are used to join dissimilar elements ; as, " They say *that* they have bought it."

(For notes, see page 141.)

RULE XVII. The relative must agree with its antecedent in *person*, *number*, and *gender*, but not necessarily in

case; as, "The man *who* is well bred, desires only to please."

(For notes, see page 142.)

ABRIDGED PROPOSITIONS.

NOTE.—Though all, or nearly all the particular cases in abridged propositions, (see note, bottom p. 93,) are provided for in the notes under Rules I. II. and III., pp. 93, 96, and 98, it is thought best to embody all the cases *absolute* in one general rule.

RULE XVIII. In an abridged proposition, the subject or attribute, when dependent on no other word, is said to be *absolute*; the subject is in the *nominative absolute*, and the attribute (also in the *nominative* when a noun or pronoun) refers logically to what would be the subject, were the proposition complete; as, "Shame being lost, all virtue is lost;" "To be a *scholar* requires industry and perseverance;" "His being a *foreigner* prevented his election;" "To be *good* is to be *happy*;" "Properly speaking, "yes" and "no" are not adverbs."

EXAMPLES TO BE CORRECTED.

RULE I. Me wants a pencil. Him and me attend school. Them are the books. Him and her are visiting in the country. They and me recited Geography.

MODEL.—The following may serve as a general model to be imitated in other examples. 'Me wants a pencil;'—"Me," should be changed to *I*, because it is used as the subject of a proposition, and the subject of a proposition, by Rule I., should be in the nominative (not objective) case.

RULE II. It is me. Thou art him. If I were her, I would live in the country. I think it was them who called. I believe it to be he. (See note 5. (3) p. 97.) I saw some persons whom I took to be they. Whom do men say that I am? Whom was it?

I do not know whom it was. It was not me who saw whom it was. I am sure it was not him and me who they called hypocrites.

NOTE.—RULE III., is seldom violated.

RULE IV. We may commit errors by using,—

1. *The wrong PERSON and NUMBER.*

You was absent yesterday. I livest in a brick house, but thou lives in a wooden one. He love to read. There's two pens on the table. Here's five apples. Neither of his brothers are well. Each of them are away from home. Either of the books are good. A variety of charming objects please me. Thou are older than my sister are.

2. *The wrong FORM.*

My cousin has wrote me a letter. The water is all froze over. I only done it once. I seen him strike his brother. The workman has began his task. I have broke my inkstand. The pastor come to see us yesterday, but I had went away before he come. The bird has forsook her nest and flew away. You had n't ought to use such language.

3. *The wrong TENSE.*

I see the boy yesterday. He come to my house, and I give him a slate pencil. I expected to have seen you yesterday.

4. *The wrong VERB.*

The sun sat at 7 o'clock. May I set with some one that has a Geography? George sot the pitcher on the table. The ship is laying in the harbor. He has just laid down. They have lain the clothes in the wrong place.

5. *Improper CONTRACTIONS.*

An't you tardy this morning? Wan't you at the concert last evening? Ha'n't you left your gloves? You can do it if you're a mind to. I ha'n't seen him to day. May I go as soon as I'm done reciting?

RULE V. (See note 1, page 108.) Those kind of people seldom succeed. I dislike these sort of fruit. Bring me them (those) tongs. Have you that shears? The wall is four foot high. I walked ten mile.

RULE VI. I am called a shepherd, him that guards the flocks. He visited his cousin, she that lives in the country. I saw the minstrels, they who sing at concerts.

RULE VII. Johns coat is black. A mans manners frequently influence his fortunes. A mothers tenderness and a fathers care, are natures gifts for mans advantage. I have studied Andrews' and Stoddard's Grammar, (See Note 1.) I have been examining Worcester and Webster's Dictionary. Will you obtain the president's of the society signature? Miss B. has got her wrong seat

RULE VIII. They that help us, we should reward. Who did you see on the Mall? Will you let him and I sit together? Who should I find but my cousin! I did not know who to send. Who shall I send? Who having not seen we love.

RULE IX. The boy learned his lesson bad.* My pen won't write good. The lady sings beautiful. I han't got no composition wrote. Charles wo'n't let me have no paper. No one never saw him doing nothing, nowhere, that he had n't ought to do. I wo'n't never play with you no more.

RULE X, needs no further illustrations.

RULE XI. NOTE.—Elements are similar in *three* important points,—(1.) In *construction* or *rank*, (2.) in their *class*, (3.) in their *nature*. Thus, in "He watched *carefully* and *attentively*;" "*carefully*" and "*attentively*" are equally dependent upon "*watched*;"—hence they are of the same *rank*:—they are both elements of the *first class*; and as they are both adverbs, they are of the same *nature*.

The work was executed *with rapidity* and *promptly*. It is a region *distinguished* by many charming varieties of rural scenery, and which may be termed the Arcadia of Scotland.

The fire destroyed tables, *and* chairs, *and* sofas, *and* books, *and* clothing, *and* carpets. (See note.)

RULE XII. Earth, air, fire, and water, is the four elements of the ancient philosophers. Oil and water never blends. George or Joseph have left their books at home. Jacob or his sons was in fault. The trees or the fruit are mine. The sun and moon

* Adverbs, not *adjectives*, are used to limit verbs, &c.

which is the largest heavenly bodies shines, the one by day, and the other by night.

RULE XIII.

(1.) *An improper omission of the preposition.*

The house stands opposite the church.

He was worthy a better fate. The culprit was banished the country. He could have no abiding place this side the Atlantic.

(2.) *The use of the wrong preposition.*

I left my books to home. Of what does the error consist ? I differ with you. The course of instruction is very different now to what it was even ten years ago. She is free of pain. I have not seen you in a long time. The book is well adapted for his capacity. Some persons find a difficulty of fixing their attention. The apples were divided among two.

RULE XIV. Between you and I, I do n't like this lesson at all. Who did you go with last night ? I do n't know who to speak to. The boy came and sat behind James and I.

RULE XV. NOTE.—The *to* of the infinitive is sometimes improperly omitted after other verbs than those mentioned in Note 1.

Permit me take your hat. Please excuse my son's absence. He was made feel their displeasure. Do not allow him eat unripe fruit.

RULE XVI. NOTE.—Elements may be dissimilar in the same respects as they are similar, (see note, p. 178;) as, "I suspected that sleep had robbed me of some part of my being." The two elements connected are *suspected*, and "sleep had robbed me, &c.;" the first is a *principal* element, (pp. 120, 121,) of the *first class*, (i. e. a single word,) and, in its *nature*, a verb ;—the second is a *subordinate* element (p. 121,) of the *third class*, (i. e. a subordinate proposition) and, in its *nature*, a noun. The principal errors occur in using the wrong connective.

My mother said how she could not let me come to school yesterday. I do not know but what I can do it. It will be according as how you do it. I doubt if I can be present to-morrow. He knew not whether* he should go.

* It is to be regretted that *whither*, which appropriately denotes tendency *to* a place, should give place to *where* used to denote motion or rest *in* a place.

RULE XVII. We may commit an error,—

(1.) *By using the wrong Relative.*

I saw the boy which (see p. 38.) brought the basket. The dogs who chased the fox have all returned.

(2.) *By putting it in the wrong person or number.*

O, thou who is thy people's friend. One who are faithful, is better than two who is unfaithful.

RULE XVIII. Me being young, they deceived me. Them having finished their business, we left. I am not sure of its being him. Its being them caused all the difficulty.

PROMISCUOUS EXAMPLES.

My composition is wrote, but it a n't wrote good. May I set side some one who has got an inkstand? My hat has fell out of the window, may some one went down and get it. John Smith has went and took his wrong seat. I do n't like those kind of copies. I like to have fell down stairs. Are you ready? Yes, sir, we be. Every one should mind their own business. The steamboat bursted her boiler. I had rather not answer that question. Have you heard who they invited? It was the beau tifullest (see p. 49.) sight I ever see.

Correct the following sentences in all respects:—

When i first come to school, i laid down my books; on the desk where Charles sets! We sot by the window one evening to see the sun sit but a cloud was laying in the horizon so that we give it up?

My mother says how you may learn me grammar if you 're a mind to, but she ca n't see no good it will do me she says I a n't a goin' to be a minister nor a lawyer nor a doctor —

How many Rules for the subject of a proposition? Repeat it. How many Rules for the predicate? Repeat them. How many Rules for the adjective element? Repeat them. How many Rules for the objective element? Repeat it. How many Rules for the adverbial element? Repeat it. Repeat the Rule for the interjection and case independent. How many Rules for connectives and the words associated with them? Repeat them. Repeat the Rules for abridged propositions.

LESSON XLVIII.

VARIOUS PECULIARITIES AND IDIOMS.

I. IN THE CLASSIFICATION OF WORDS.

WHAT is (1.) An *interrogative pronoun*; as, "What do you see?"

(2.) A *compound relative*; as, "He received what he wanted."

(3.) An *interjection*; as, "What! Have you come?"

(4.) A *limiting adjective*; as, "He gave me what books I needed."

THAT is (1.) A *subordinate conjunction*; as, "I know that he is faithful."

(2.) A *relative pronoun*; as, "An idler is a watch that (which) wants both hands."

(3.) A *limiting adjective*; as, "That book is soiled."

As is (1.) Part of a compound *preposition*; as, "As to that, said the pendulum."

(2.) A *subordinate connective*, when it denotes,
(a) *Manner*; as, "Speak as you think."

(b) *Comparison of equality*; as, "He is as large as his brother."

(c) *Time*; as, "I arrived as (when) he was taking his leave."

(d) *Cause or reason*; as, "As (since) a youth was their leader, what could they do?"

(e) *Correspondence*; as, "As the door turneth on its hinges, so doth the slothful man upon his bed."

NOTE. — Besides the above uses, it takes the place of the relative pronoun (though never properly a relative) after *such*, *same* and *many*; as, "Such as I have, give I unto thee."

(3.) A mere *index* of apposition, or of a peculiar relation of some property to its object; as, "The moon as satellite attends;" "They regarded him as innocent."

BUT is (1.) A *coördinate conjunction*; as, "He is not sick, *but* faint."

(2.) A *preposition*; as, "They gave him all *but* (except) one."

(3.) An *adverb*; as, "We saw him *but* (only) twice."

MUCH is (1) A *noun*; as, "Where *much* is given, *much* is required."

(2.) An *adjective*; as, "*Much* ado is made."

(3.) An *adverb*; as, "I was *much* pleased with the visit."

FOR is (1.) A *subordinate connective*; as, "The battle ceased along the plain, *for* the bard had sung the song of peace."

(2.) A *preposition*; as, "The soldier fought *for* glory."

NOTE.—The same is true of *after*, *before*, *since*, *till*, *until*, &c.

WHEN is (1.) An *interrogative adverb*; as, "When did you arrive?"

(2.) A *subordinate connective*; as, "When sinners entice thee, consent thou not."

NOTE.—The same is true of all the interrogatives; as, where, why, how, &c., &c.

EXERCISE.

Parse the following words:—

What! Have you but one book for me? I knew that that was the tree that was girdled. As you have what you will need for the present, I shall give much of what remains to your sister as a reward. All but three of these rivers are navigable; but you must recollect I shall tell you this but once; for it is unpleasant to repeat.

II. IN THE FORM, CONSTRUCTION, AND APPLICATION OF WORDS.

These peculiarities are called *figures*. A *figure* is a deviation from the ordinary *form*, *construction*, and *application* of a word. Hence figures are divided into those of *Etymology*, *Syntax*, and *Rhetoric*.

FIGURES OF ETYMOLOGY.

A figure of Etymology is a deviation from the ordinary *form* of a word.

Figures of Etymology consist either in a *defect*, an *excess*, or a *change*, in some of the elements of a word.

Aphæresis cuts off a letter or syllable from the *beginning* of a word ; as, *'gainst*, *'gan*, for *against*, *began*.

Syncope removes a letter or syllable from the *middle* of a word ; as, *o'er*, *e'er*, *lov'd*, for *over*, *ever*, *loved*.

Apocope cuts off a letter or syllable from the *end* of a word ; as, *th'*, *tho'*, for *the*, *though*.

Prosthesis adds a letter or syllable to the *beginning* of a word ; as, *adown*, *enchain*, for *down*, *chain*.

Epenthesis adds a letter or syllable to the *middle* of a word ; as, *preventative*, *retractation*, for *preventive*, *retraction*. This figure seldom occurs in English.

Paragoge adds a letter or syllable to the *end* of a word ; as, *withouten*, *bounden*, for *without*, *bound*.

Synæresis contracts two syllables into one ; as, *thou'rt*, *'t is*, for *thou art*, *it is*.

Diæresis separates two vowels which otherwise might form a diphthong ; as, *coördinate*, *zoölogy*.

Tmesis separates a compound word by inserting a word between its parts ; as, *to us ward*, for *toward us*.

EXERCISE.

Point out the figures in the following examples :—

“ Around *'gan* Marmion wildly stare.”

“ The lamps shone *o'er* fair women and brave men.”

"Did ye not hear it? No: 'twas but the wind."

"'Tis mine to teach th' inactive hand to reap
Kind nature's bounties, o'er the globe diffus'd."

Oh! What's the matter? What's the matter?
What is't that ails young Harry Gill?

A heart has throbb'd beneath that leathern breast,
And tears adown that dusky cheek have rolled.

He led, I wot, the softest way to death,
And taught withouten pain and strife to yield the breath.

Scan the following lines and correct the feet by using any of the above figures:—

It is the sunset of life gives me mystical lore.

*For we have sworn, by our countries assaulters,
By the virgins they have dragged from our altars.*

*And every tempest howling over his head
Renders the savage wilderness more wild.*

FIGURES OF SYNTAX.

A figure of Syntax is a deviation from the ordinary *construction* of a word.

Figures of Syntax, consist in a *defect*, an *excess*, or a *change* in some of the elements of a sentence.

Ellipsis is the omission of a word, phrase, or clause, which is necessary to complete the construction; as, "We were absent [during] one day."

It should be understood that the words omitted by this figure, as truly belong to the sentence, grammatically considered, as those which are expressed. They are omitted for rhetorical effect, that is, to render the sentence more agreeable and forcible.

Ellipsis generally takes place;—

1. In *coördinate* constructions, to avoid the repetition of some common part ; as,—

"There are some who write, [and who] talk, [and who] think so much about vice and [about] virtue, that they have no time to practice either the one or the other."

2. In certain *subordinate* constructions, especially those which denote comparison, for the same reason ; as,—

"Revenge is a stronger feeling than gratitude" [is ;] "Our minds are as different as our faces" [are.]

3. In certain *idiomatic* constructions ;

(1.) *In elements of the first class* ;—The subject of imperative sentences ; as, "Go" [thou,] "Awake" [ye ;]—The noun after adjectives or after the possessive case ; as, "The violent [persons] take it by force ;" "This book is mine," i. e. *my book*.

(2.) *In elements of the second class* ;—The connective may be omitted. Examples. The *to* before the indirect object ; as, "He gave [to] me a book ;" — The *to* of the infinitive after *bid*, *dare*, *let*, *make*, *hear*, *need*, *feel*, *see*. *To* or *unto* after *like*, *near* ; as, like [to] his father, near [to] the house ;—*During*, *over*, *for*, *in*, or *on*, before nouns, denoting *time*, the *measure of distance*, *magnitude*, or *excess* ; as, "They left [on] Monday ;" "They travelled [through] twenty miles."

The *object* may be omitted ; as, "The leaves were scattered around" [us.] In such cases, the preposition is usually called an adverb.

(3.) *In elements of the third class* ;—The connective may be omitted,—In substantive clauses in the objective ; as, "My heart whispers [that] God is nigh ;" — In adjective clauses when the relative is in the objective ; as, "The paper [which] we purchased is damaged ;" "The house [which] we went to, stands on a hill."

The subject and copula in expressions like "If [it is] possible, if necessary, if convenient, when agreeable, while absent, &c.

The *whole clause* between *as* and *if*, *as* and *though* ; as, "He seemed as [he would seem] if [he were] deranged."

4. *In exclamatory sentences, in responsives, in inscriptions,*

and *tities*; as, [It is] Strange ' "Whom did you see?" [I saw] George. [This is] The New Testament.

Pleonasm is the use of superfluous words; as, "I know thee who thou art."

Pleonasm is the opposite of Ellipsis and may be said, in general, to take place where ellipsis should, but does not take place.

Pleonasm takes place,

(1.) When the same idea is repeated in the same or in different words; as, "Verily, verily, I say unto you;" "All ye inhabitants of the world, *and dwellers on the earth.*"

(2.) When a noun is introduced into a sentence and then immediately represented in the same relation by a pronoun; as, "Now Harry he had long suspected."

(3.) When a noun or any other word is repeated in the same relation for the purpose of modifying it; as, "That great God whom you see me daily worship; — * — * — that God who created the heavens and the earth; — — * — * — this God who has done all these great things — * — * — this great God, the creator of worlds, of angels, and men, is your Father and Friend."

Enallage is a change of one part of speech for another, or some modification of a word for another; as, "They fall successive [ly] and successive [ly] rise." So when a single individual says, "We have done so and so," he uses the plural number for the singular.

Hyperbaton is the transposition of words; as, "While its song rolls the woods along."

EXERCISE.

Supply the words omitted by ellipsis in the following :—

Cassius. _____ I am a soldier, I,

Older in practice, abler than yourself
To make conditions.

Brutus. Go to ! you 're not, Cassius.

Cas. I am.

Bru. I say you are not.

Write or repeat the following, leaving out all words which may be omitted :—

If it is possible, I will come. What would be the consequence though we tarry ?

Tell what figures occur in the following examples :—

Anxiously did we watch every movement. *Dark* burned the candle. For Renard *close* attended at his heels. Sometimes with early morn, he mounted *gay*. Seven circling *planets* we behold. He speaks *as if* he were sick. Say, burst *they* borrowed from her father's wounds, *these drops* ?

FIGURES OF RHETORIC.

A figure of Rhetoric is a deviation from the ordinary application of a word ; it is commonly called a *trope*.

Metaphor gives to an object the appropriate name of another object, on account of a resemblance between them ; as, " Man ! Thou *pendulum* betwixt a smile and tear."

Simile is a formal comparison, introduced by *like*, *as*, or *so* ; as, " He shall be *like a tree* planted by the rivers of water."

An *Allegory* is a continued metaphor, forming a kind of parable or fable. For examples, see Pilgrim's Progress. See also the eightieth Psalm.

Personification attributes to inanimate objects some of the qualities of living beings ; as, " The sky *saddens* with the gathered storm."

Metonymy is a change of name ; as, " You will address the *chair*, i. e., the *president*."

Vision represents imaginary objects as real and present to the senses ; as,

" See lofty Lebanon his head advance,
See nodding forests on the mountains dance."

Synecdoche is the use of a part for the whole, or the whole for a part ; as, *A sail for a ship, a roof for a house, the head for the person.*

Irony is the use of a word for its opposite ; as, " He was as virtuous as Nero," i. e. as *vile* as Nero.

Antithesis is the placing of contrary or opposite objects in contrast ; as, "*Immortal* though *no more*, though *fallen great.*"

Hyperbole magnifies or diminishes an object beyond the truth ; as, "Rivers of water run down mine eyes, because they keep not thy law."

Exclamation is used to express some strong emotion of the mind ; as, "O, the depth of the riches both of the wisdom and the knowledge of God!"

Interrogation is used to express a strong affirmation under the form of a question ; as, "Hath he said it ? and will he not do it ?"

Apostrophe is a turning off from the subject to address some other person or thing ; as, "Death is swallowed up in victory. O, death where is thy sting ? O, grave where is thy victory ?"

Climax is a series of members in a sentence, each rising in importance above the preceding.

EXAMPLE.

" What hope is there remaining of liberty, if whatever is their pleasure, it is lawful for them to do ; if whatever it is lawful for them to do, they are able to do ; if what they are able to do, they dare to do ; if what they dare to do, they really execute ; and if what they execute is no way offensive to you ? "

EXERCISE.

Point out the figures in the following :—

“ Yet at thy call the hardy tar pursued,
Pale, but intrepid ; sad, but unsubdued.”

He has at last assumed the *sceptre*. The power of appointment is vested in the *crown*. The garrison was put to the *sword*. In the sweat of thy face shalt thou eat thy *bread*. The *sea saw* it and *fled*. Joseph is a fruitful *bough*. Devotion is a delicate and tender *plant*. A virtuous man, slandered by evil tongues, is like a diamond obscured by smoke. I will be to her a *wall* of fire. What *ailed* thee, O, thou *sea*, that thou *fledest*? They are *swifter than eagles*; they are *stronger than lions*. Read I. Kings, xviii, 27, and explain the figure. Canst thou by searching, find out God? Canst thou find out the Almighty unto perfection? What a piece of work is man! how noble in reason! how infinite in faculties! in action, how like an angel! in apprehension, how like a God.

III. IN IDIOMATIC CONSTRUCTIONS.

NOTE.—The following specimens are intended to draw the attention of the teacher to the various idiomatic peculiarities in the constructions which follow certain words or forms of words, and not to be a complete system which exhausts the subject.

1. The *Relative tenses* (sometimes the progressive form of the *Absolute tenses*) are generally followed by some *phrase* or *clause* used to specify the time to which they relate; as, “ I had finished my letter *before you came*.”

2. The *comparative degree* is followed:—

(1.) By an *adverbial clause* introduced by *than*, when both the compared objects are distinctly named; as, “ The *ash* is taller than the *oak*” [is.]

(2.) By a *phrase* (preposition *of*) when one of the compared objects is distinctly named and the other is involved in a general term which includes both; as, “ The *ash* is the taller of the two *trees*.”

3. The *superlative degree* is followed by a phrase (prep. *of*,) and shows a comparison between a single object distinctly named, and all other objects with which it is compared ; as, " *Achilles* was the bravest of the *Greeks*."

4. Many adjectives, as *able*, *unable*, — *necessary*, *unnecessary*, — *desirable*, *undesirable*, — *agreeable*, *disagreeable*, &c., &c., are followed by an *infinitive* or a *preposition* and its *object*, when in the positive degree. When in the comparative or superlative, they are also followed by the construction required by the above rules, (3 and 4, above;) as, " *George* was unwilling *to write* ;" " *George* was more unwilling *to write*, than *his sister*."

5. The verb " *to be*" when used to predicate existence (and not as a copula) is generally preceded by the expletive " *there*" and followed by its subject ; as, " *There was light*." When such a proposition is abridged the expletive remains ; as, " *God said let there be light* ;" " *There being no provisions, we were compelled to leave* ;" " *I am not sure of there being a supply*."

6. The verbs *tell*, *teach*, *say*, *wish*, *declare*, *order*, and, in general, those which denote some *state* or *act* of the mind, or some *declaration* or *statement* are generally followed,

(1.) By a *substantive clause* ; as, " *I say, that he was angry*."

(2.) By a personal *object* and an *infinitive*, which together are equivalent to a substantive clause abridged, having its subject retained according to Rule I., Note 2, (3,) p. 94.

IV. IN THE STRUCTURE OF SENTENCES.

All sentences containing more than one proposition are either *loose* or *compact*.

A *loose* sentence is one in which the parts are related in thought, but not in construction ; as, "Three days they mourned over Carthon : on the fourth, his father died."

A *compact* sentence is one in which the parts are closely united both in thought and construction ; as, "Though he stay me, yet will I trust in him."

A sentence is said to be *transformed*, when its structure is changed without materially altering its meaning.

Transformation takes place,—

1. When a *compound* sentence is changed to a complex. This is done by sinking one of the coördinate clauses to a subordinate rank ; as, "*Be obliging to others*, and you will secure their friendship," = *If you are obliging to others*, you will secure their friendship.

2. When a *complex* sentence is changed to a compound. This is done by raising a subordinate clause to a principal one ; as, "You should honor your parents, *because they have watched over your infancy*," = "Your parents have watched over your infancy, and, therefore, you should honor them."

3. When a *complex* sentence is changed to a simple. This is done by abridging its subordinate clause ; as, "The man *who is well bred* desires only *that he may please*," = "The well-bred man desires only that he may please," = The well bred man desires only *to please*.

4. When a *simple* sentence is changed to a complex. This is done by expanding one of its elements into a proposition ; as, "Socrates taught *the immortality of the soul*," = "Socrates taught *that the soul is immortal*." (See exercises, pp. 144, 147.)

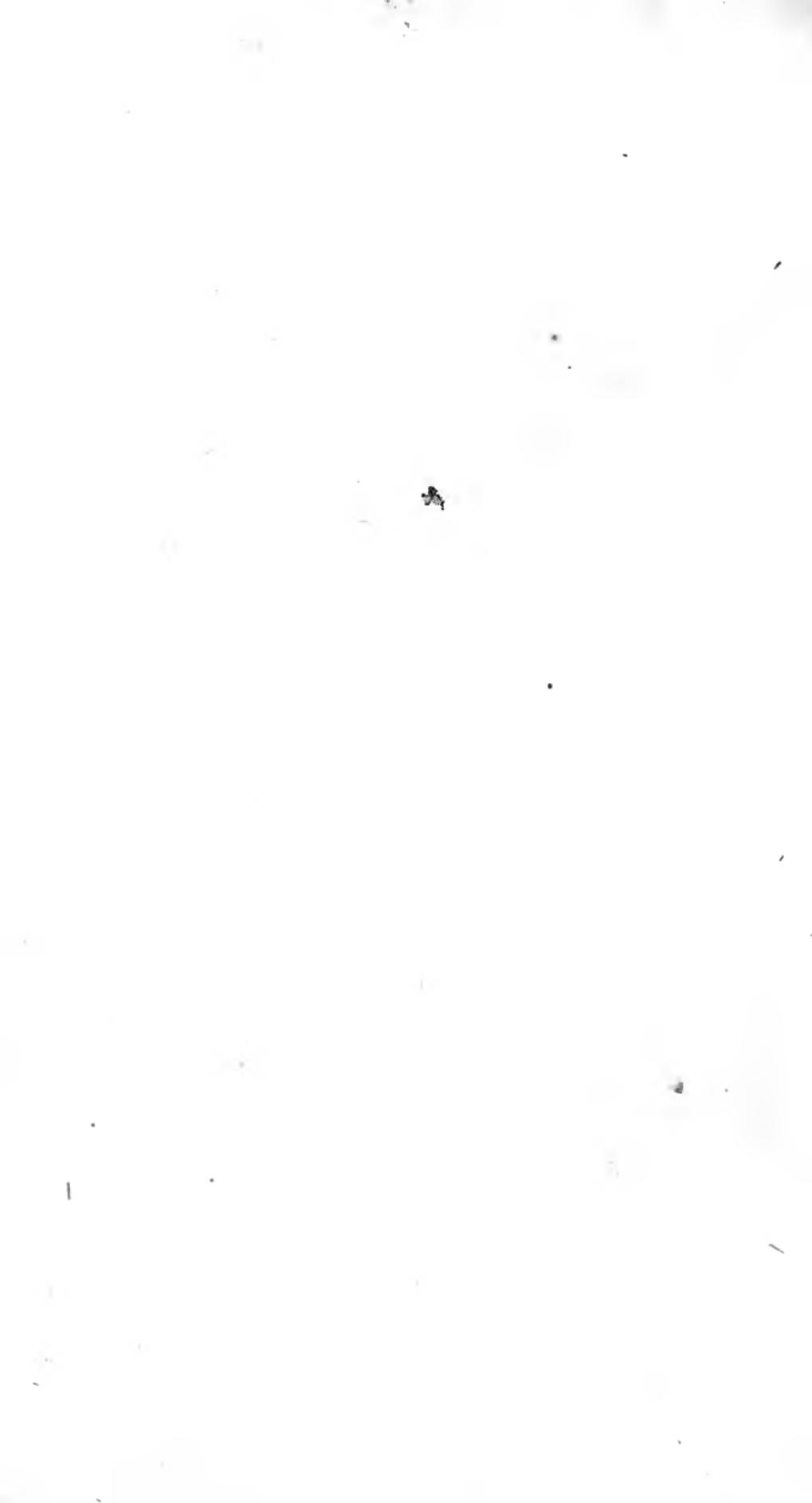
NOTE.—It will be seen, at once, that a compound sentence may first be reduced to a complex, by Rule 1., and then to a simple, by

Rule 3. So also a simple sentence may be first changed to a complex, by Rule 4, and then to a compound, by Rule 2. The teacher should frequently exercise his pupils in all the various transformations, especially in those of abridging and restoring subordinate clauses. Good examples occur in almost every sentence of their ordinary reading lessons.

How many parts of speech may *what* be? *That?* *As?* *But?* *Much?* *For, after, before, since, till, until, ere, notwithstanding?* *When, why, how, &c.?* What is a figure? How are they divided? What is a figure of etymology? In what do they consist? What is Aphæresis? Syncope? Apocope? Prosthetic? Epenthesis? Paragoge? Diæresis? Tmesis? What is a figure of Syntax? In what do they consist? What is Ellipsis? In what constructions does it take place? What is Pleonasm? When does it take place? What is Enallage? What is Hyperbaton? What is a figure of Rhetoric? What is it commonly called? What is a Metaphor? A Simile? An Allegory? Personification? Metonymy? Vision? Synecdoche? Irony? Antithesis? Hyperbole? Exclamation? Interrogation? Apostrophe? Climax? What constructions follow the Relative tenses? The Comparative degree? The Superlative degree? The Adjectives *able, unable, &c.?* *There?* The verbs *tell, teach, &c.?* How are sentences divided? What is a *loose* sentence? A *compact?* When is a sentence said to be transformed? When does transformation take place?

THE END.







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